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**A
HISTORY OF
EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES
1565-1930**

By

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TO THE MEMORY OF
MY FATHER

PREFACE

This volume is an effort to trace the outlines of the history of education in the Philippines from the sixteenth century to 1930. The background of this history is briefly described in the introduction. The history of education in the Philippines may be easily divided into two periods: Spanish and American. The first part of this book deals with the Spanish period and presents all the available facts that can be gleaned from numerous contemporary publications relating to the Philippines. The second part treats of the American period; that is, of the first three decades of the twentieth century based mainly upon official sources. The facts are allowed to speak for themselves, opinions are rarely hazarded, and the conclusions drawn are based upon the facts at hand.

The history of the educational development of the Philippines is of living interest at the present moment. Educational problems are continually arising, which require for their intelligent discussion and solution, among other things, an understanding of the previous educational experience of the nation. For this reason, the author thought it would be useful to write a straightforward account of the educational needs, problems, and ideals of the Filipinos in the last four hundred years, primarily for the general reader who has no time to delve into the rapidly accumulating sources

of this history. Hitherto, no complete history of education in the Philippines has been published. The few works that exist deal only with portions of this history, such as that by Manuel Artigas y Cuerva, *La Instrucción en Filipinas* and that by Camilo Osias, *Education in the Philippines under the Spanish Régime*, 1917, a brief account. It is hoped that this preliminary work will supply a long-felt need.

While assuming full responsibility for the shortcomings of this book, the author is under special obligation to her former pupils for assistance in the collection of material. The contributions of some students, consisting of biographical notes on Filipino teachers under the Spanish régime, constitute Appendix A. She wishes to acknowledge further her indebtedness to Doctor Maximo M. Kalaw for the use of some documents in his private library; to Mr. Felipe Estella, secretary of the University of the Philippines, for permission to consult official documents belonging to his office; and to Professor Gabriel Bernardo, librarian of the same institution, for his unfailing courtesy and promptness in securing for her use needed references.

ENCARNACION ALZONA.

Manila, May, 1932.

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INTRODUCTION

THE CIVILIZATION OF THE FILIPINOS IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

At the beginning of the modern era the Filipinos already possessed an advanced civilization. Contemporary writers described extensively the state of culture of the people. Material remains of that civilization have also been preserved.

One of the best evidences of the culture of the Filipinos was the existence of a written language. They had an alphabet consisting of seventeen letters, three of which were vowels and the rest, consonants. The Tagbanuas of Palawan and the Mangyans of Mindoro¹ still use this alphabet. The most notable book written in these characters was Father Francisco Lopez' catechism, a translation of Cardinal Belarmino's catechism, and it was printed in Manila in 1621.

*The
Alphabet*

The Philippine alphabet has been the subject of many studies, among which may be mentioned *La Antigua Escritura Filipina* by Ignacio Villamor, *Contribución para el Estudio de los Antiguos Alfabetos Filipinos* by Trinidad Pardo de Tavera, and *Considérations sur les alphabets des Philippines* by E. Jacquet. In Europe the Filipino alphabet was made known for the first time by Father Pedro Chirino, a

¹ The Tagbanuas are a hill tribe in the Island of Palawan. Mangyan is the name of a hill tribe in the Island of Mindoro.

Jesuit, in his famous book entitled *Relación de las Islas Filipinas*, which was published in Rome in 1604.

According to Father Chirino writing was common among the Filipinos, both men and women. They wrote on palm leaves and bamboo with a sharpened piece of iron.

As regards the direction of Filipino writing opinions differ. Chirino asserted that the Filipinos wrote from top to bottom. Other writers contend that they wrote from the bottom upwards. After a comparative study of Philippine writings, Villamor arrived at the conclusion that the Filipinos wrote horizontally from left to right. Father Marcilla¹ and Jaquet held the same view. All the known languages similar to the Philippine tongues were written horizontally from left to right. The use of the dot above or below some consonants would make writing perpendicularly rather confusing. Besides, the use of two parallel perpendicular lines (| |) in Filipino writing could not be employed in a system of writing in which the lines were written perpendicularly. All these observations supported the opinion that the direction of Filipino writing was horizontal, from left to right.

Some writers on the Philippines declared that they found not one, but several alphabets among the Filipinos. In his book *Informe sobre las Islas Filipinas* published in Madrid in 1843, the Spanish publicist Sinibaldo de Mas mentioned five distinct alphabets (two Taga-

¹ C. Marcilla y Martin; *Estudio de los Antiguos Alfabetos Filipinos*, Malabon, 1895.

log, one Ilocano, one Pangasinan, and one Pampango). Tavera found nine different alphabets mentioned in the various accounts of the Philippines. He explained that the apparent differences noted in the alphabets were not fundamental, but were due to the peculiarities of individual handwriting, varying tastes and styles, and differences of time and place. Modern philologists are agreed that there was only one Filipino alphabet.

The study of the Philippine alphabet has now only historical value. By the end of the seventeenth century the majority of the Filipinos had abandoned their own alphabet to adopt the superior Latin alphabet brought by the Spaniards. The introduction of the Latin alphabet was one of the contributions of the Spaniards to the advancement of Philippine civilization.

The family was the unit of social life. The families were grouped into the so-called *barangay* the size of which varied from fifty to seven thousand persons each. Every *barangay* was under a chief called *dato* or *maginoo*. Generally, he was the bravest and most influential man of the group. He was also the judge of the *barangay*, who decided the disputes and imposed the penalties according to custom and written law. Death, fines, and slavery were the usual penalties imposed upon criminals. The death penalty could be commuted. When trying certain cases the *barangay* chief was aided by a jury of old men. The litigants paid fees which went to the *barangay*

Govern-
ment

chief and constituted one of the sources of his income.

*The Code of
Kalantiao*

The Code of Kalantiao is the only written law of the Filipinos that has survived the Spanish régime. The original was found in 1614 in the possession of a native chief in the Island of Panay. It was acquired by a Spaniard name Marcelino Orfila of Zaragoza, Spain. It was later translated into Spanish by Rafael Murviedo y Zamanev. The code had been in force since 1433.

A perusal of the code will show that life, property, women, the aged, and the dead were safeguarded in the laws of the Filipinos before the coming of the Spaniards. The penalties prescribed in the code may seem very severe to modern man, but it must be remembered that they were common in the legal codes of other nations of that epoch. Slavery, one of the penalties, was not the same form of slavery known to the western world, but simply meant service in the household as ordinary servants. The slaves were treated as members of the family and did not occupy so degrading a position as in the west. The provisions of the code in favor of women are noteworthy. Men were punished if they were cruel to their wives or married very young girls.

The following is a translation of the code:

First Order

Do not kill, nor steal, nor hurt the aged, for your life will be exposed to the danger of death. All those who violate this order will be drowned with a stone in the river or in boiling water.

Second Order

See to it that all your debts to the chiefs are readily paid. He who fails to comply will be lashed with a whip one hundred times for the first offense. If the debt is large, the debtors hand must be immersed in boiling water three times. For the second offense, the debtor will be put to death by blows.

Third Order

No one should marry very young girls nor more than he can take care of, nor be excessively lustful. He who disobeys this order for the first time will be compelled to swim for three hours. For the second offense he will be whipped to death with the prongs of a spine.

Fourth Order

Follow and obey: Do not disturb graves; in passing before them wherever they may be, in caves or trees, show your respect for the dead. He who disobeys this order will be put to death by exposure to ants or be whipped to death with prongs.

Fifth Order

Agreements for bartering food should be fulfilled to the letter. If one fails to comply with this order, he will be whipped for one hour. For the second offense, he will be placed among the ants for one day.

Sixth Order

Respect holy places, such as trees of recognized worth and other spots. For the first offense, one will be fined the equivalent of one month's labor in gold or in honey. For the second offense, the punishment is five years.

Seventh Order

The death penalty will be imposed upon the following: Those who kill sacred trees; those who shoot arrows at night at old men and women; those who enter the houses of the chiefs without permission; those who kill sharks or striped crocodiles.

Eighth Order

Slavery for one year will be the penalty for stealing the wives of chiefs; for keeping bad dogs who bite the chiefs; for setting on fire another's crops.

Ninth Order

To be beaten for two days: Those who sing in their night walks; those who kill birds known as "Manaul;" those who destroy the chiefs' records; those who deceive with wicked intention; those who trifle with the dead.

Tenth Order

It is the duty of the mother to instruct her daughters secretly in sex hygiene and prepare them for motherhood. Husbands should not be cruel to their wives. Nor should they punish their wives if they catch them in adultery *in flagrante*. Whoever disobeys this order will be cut into pieces and thrown to the crocodiles.

Eleventh Order

The following will be burned alive: Those who, through force or cleverness, escape and evade punishment; those who kill two young children; those who try to steal the wives of old men.

Twelfth Order

The following will be drowned: The slaves who attack their chiefs or owners and masters; those who are lascivious; those who kill their idols by breaking them or throwing them away.

Thirteenth Order

The following will be placed among ants for half a day: Those who kill black cats at the new moon; those who steal objects, however insignificant, from their chiefs and elders.

Fourteenth Order

The following will be reduced to slavery for life: Those who refuse to marry off their beautiful daughters to sons of the chiefs or hide them in bad faith.

Fifteenth Order

Regarding beliefs and superstitions. The following will be whipped: Those who eat the bad meat of sa-

cred insects or useful herbs. Those who injure or kill chickens of Manaul or white monkeys.

Sixteenth Order

The fingers of the following will be cut off: Those who destroy idols made of wood or clay on their altars. Those who break the pick of priestesses used for sacrificing pigs, or break wine vessels.

Seventeenth Order

The following will be put to death: Those who desecrate the places where idols and sacred objects pertaining to their gods and chiefs are found. Whoever does his necessities in these places will be burnt.

Eighteenth Order

Those who disobey the above orders, if they are elders, they will be thrown into the river to be eaten by sharks and crocodiles.

Done in the Year 1433. Kalantiao, Chief III, Aklan, Panay.

The Filipinos recognized three social classes: The privileged or *maharlica* in Tagalog; the *aliping-namamahay* or partially free men; and the *aliping-sangigilir* or slaves. The *maharlica* was the ruling and military class. The *aliping-namamahay* could be compared with the serfs in western Europe. They cultivated the soil and paid the *dato* a portion of their crops. They could not be sold; they lived in their own houses; they were free to marry. The third and lowest class was the slaves. A free man became a slave through war, purchase, or the commission of certain offenses. Men captured in war were made slaves of the victor. It was usual to pay a debt with personal service, such as working for the creditor, who could transfer him to another if the creditor so desired. Slavery was a penalty meted out to a free man who was convicted of any of the following of-

*Social
Classes*

fenses: Passing under the chief's house without his permission; crossing his fields; or attempting to seduce the chief's wife or daughter. Only a small number of men owed their slavery to the last-mentioned cause. The majority of slaves were persons unable to pay their debts. However, by means of money payment, slaves could buy their freedom.

Religion

The Filipinos believed in one God whom the Tagalogs called *Bathala Maycapal*, meaning "God, the Maker of All", and the Bisayans, *Lauon*.¹ They venerated saints or *anitos*, the souls of departed ancestors. To these saints sacrifices were offered for the purpose of obtaining their intercession in favor of the living. If the purpose was to celebrate a happy event, a pig was the commonest sacrifice. It was an occasion for merry-making under gayly decorated pergolas built for the purpose. According to Morga fruits, perfumes, and food were also offered on such occasions. When the object of the sacrifice was the recovery of the health of a sick person, a new house for the sick would be built, and, in the presence of the patient, a pig or other animal would be sacrificed. The officiating priestess would kill the pig, and with its blood anoint the patient. The pig was then roasted and served to the relatives and guests. Food was also offered to the *anitos* of the mountains and valleys and the sea for the purpose of obtaining their protection for travelers; to the *anitos* of the fields, in order

¹ Juan Francisco San Antonio; *Descripción de las Islas Filipinas*, p. 150, cited in P. A. Paterno, *La Antigua Civilización de Filipinas*, Manila, 1915, p. 32.

that crops might be abundant; and to the *anitos* of the home, for the protection of the family. There were priests and priestesses who were called *catalonan* and who recognized a head called *sonat*. Fray Juan Francisco de San Antonio compared the *sonat* to a bishop in the Catholic church. The *sonat* ordained the *catalonan* and was highly respected. The principal function of the *catalonan* was to officiate at the offering of sacrifices. The kind of sacrifice made depended upon the motive of the person offering it.

The Filipinos believed in a future life and in reward and punishment. The good and the just would ascend to heaven (*langit* in Tagalog) on the rainbow, the road to heaven, where *Bathala* presided, surrounded by the *anitos* or saints. The bad were punished by *Bathala*.

The Filipinos built temples. Some writers give descriptions of these temples. They were located on mountain sides and were mistaken by the early Europeans for caves.¹ In their houses they had altars upon which the idols or images of the *anitos* were placed.

At funerals, as is the practice of the Chinese, there were hired mourners. The dead was dressed and embalmed and, if he was a person of importance, the remains lay in state for about three days, during which the mourners recited his virtues and achievements. The rich placed their dead in coffins made of hard wood; the poor were generally wrapped in

Funerals

¹ Paterno, *op. cit.*, pp. 69-70, reproduces a description of one of these temples written by a French traveler, Dr. J. Montano.

mats. Food, clothes, weapons, domestic animals, and other articles were buried with the dead in the belief that they would be needed in the next life. Sometimes slaves were killed and buried with their chiefs, according to Colin.¹ The burial place was generally the ground under the house, or the open country.

Eating and drinking were indulged in at the funerals. The feasting at times continued for several days after the funeral. However, the widow or widower and the orphans and other near relatives did not partake of this food. They ate very lightly, generally vegetables only. As a sign of mourning the Tagalogs wore black, and the Bisayans white, after the Chinese usage.

Education

Formal education was known to the Filipinos. They had schools in which children were taught reading, writing, reckoning, religion and incantation, and fencing for self-defense. In the southern part of the Islands, (in Panay, for instance), there were schools which taught the Sanskrit which was then the official language of the neighboring island of Borneo; arithmetic, including the decimal system; the art of acquiring personal invulnerability; and the effective use of weapons for self-defense.²

Costume

Father Francisco Colin, a Jesuit missionary, found the Filipinos of Luzon and Bisayas

¹ Colin; *Labor Evangélica*, pp. 69-82, cited in Nicolas Zafra, *Outlined Readings on Philippine History*, Manila, 1927, p. 47 (manuscript).

² Josué Soncuya; *Historia Prehispánica de la Isla de Panay*, Manila, 1917, pp. 22-24.

clothed and bejeweled. The men wore a short loose jacket with short sleeves, made of linen, and breeches that reached the middle of the thigh. The chiefs preferred red jackets and richly decorated breeches. Around the head they wound a narrow piece of cloth after the Moorish style. If this was of red, it meant that the wearer had already killed at least one person, which was a proof of his bravery; if the turban was embroidered, the wearer had killed at least seven persons, which was a greater distinction. The men wore bracelets, rings, and necklaces of gold, ivory, and precious stones.

The women wore short jackets with sleeves and long, full skirts over which they wore a piece of colored cloth, sometimes richly embroidered. They were fond of ornaments of gold and stones which they wore in their ears, around the neck, on the arms, and on the fingers.

Among the Bisayans tattooing the whole body was commonly practiced, and hence the Spaniards called them *Pintados*, meaning painted ones.

The Filipinos lived in houses. The common people had houses roofed with nipa-palm leaves and built high above the ground. Wood and bamboo were the materials used for the other parts of the house. Usually there was an open service porch at the back of the house. The lower part of the house served as an enclosure for fowl and other domestic animals.

The houses of the chief were roomy and comfortable and were made of the local build-

Houses

ing materials bamboo, nipa, and wood. One entered these houses by ascending a bamboo ladder, which could be drawn up at pleasure. Generally, the ladder was removed when the occupants were out or at night, as a protective measure.

Commerce
and
Industry

Before the sixteenth century there was a flourishing trade between the Filipinos and the Chinese, Arabs, and Hindus. Many evidences of this trade were found by the Spaniards upon their arrival. A system of weights and measures was current. For weighing goods, the *pikul* was used; for measures of capacity, the *kaban*, *ganta*, and *tsupa*; for measuring length, the *dipa* or two arms length, *dankal* or the length from the tip of the thumb to the tip of the middle finger and *timuro* or the length from the tip of the thumb to the tip of the second finger. Selling on the instalment plan was a common practice. There were capitalists who lent money at interest, simple and compound. Security was given for loans. Bartering was common, but gold dust by weight was also used in making payments.

Fishing was a popular industry. The rivers and the accessibility of the sea made fishing profitable. Fish nets and bamboo sticks planted in the water were employed for catching fish.

The weaving of cotton and silk was a domestic industry pursued by the women. Crude looms were found by the Spaniards in many parts of the Islands. Besides the weaving of cloth, hats, mats, and baskets were woven from the abundant materials that were scattered

throughout the country. Bamboo and different kinds of palms supplied the materials for weaving.

The art of distilling was also known. From the various kinds of palms, distilled beverages were obtained.

Shipbuilding was another important industry. The geographical location of the country encouraged water transportation. Vessels of excellent make were found by the Spaniards here. Some of the vessels were made from one log and others were made of planks put together with wooden nails. Attached to each side of the vessel was a bamboo framework which served as a counterpoise. With such framework the ships would not capsize. The sails were square and made of linen. The larger vessels had two sails. The vessels were propelled by means of paddles, the large ones having as many as one hundred paddles.

The Spaniards found the Filípinos working in gold mines in Paracale in the Province of Camarines, and in the Islands of Mindoro, Cebu, and Mindanao. The gold was made into jewelry, such as chains, bracelets, and earrings. The gold ingots were used as a medium of exchange.

Pearls of fine quality were found near the Calamianes Island, but the industry was not popular. The shells of the oysters were manufactured into beautiful articles.

Large sea turtles were also plentiful and their shells were sold to Portuguese and Chinese traders.

Snail shells, which were found on the beaches of many islands and locally known as *sigay*, were an article of commerce. They were sold by the measure to Siamese, Cambodian, and Chinese merchants.

The Filipinos practiced agriculture extensively. Large areas were under cultivation. There were irrigated lands. The agricultural implements were still crude, however. They had devices for hulling and separating the chaff from the grain, and wooden pestles and mortars for pounding and whitening rice.

Individual ownership of land was recognized, although in some places the chief of the *barangay* held all the land. In every case the right of private ownership was respected.

The Filipinos possessed domestic animals, such as dogs, cats, pigs, goats, and carabaos. The carabaos or water buffaloes were used in agriculture and their horns were sold to Chinese traders.

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PART I
EDUCATION DURING THE SPANISH PERIOD,
1565-1899

After reading the preceding sketch of the state of culture of the Filipinos in the sixteenth century, we are now ready to trace the development of education during the Spanish régime. The last chapter of this part of our narrative is an account of the Filipino experiment in education during the revolutionary period from 1896 to 1899. The outstanding facts concerning education have been brought together here in an effort to show the educational experience of the Filipinos during the Spanish period and to provide a perspective for the study of recent educational history.

CHAPTER I

THE FOUNDING OF SCHOOLS, 1565-1768

The coming of the Spaniards marked a new era in the educational history of the Philippines. Their arrival marked the beginning of the establishment of Catholic missionary schools throughout the Islands and the introduction of Christianity and western civilization. The result of the Spanish conquest was far-reaching. The Philippines was the first country in the Far East to become westernized—to adopt the institutions and ideas current in western Europe. These cultural relations between Europe and the Philippines were strengthened in the course of time and survived Spanish rule.

The Establishment of Missionary Schools

The Spanish religious orders played an important part in the introduction of western civilization in these Islands. They baptized the Filipinos and thus nominally made them Christians. The harmless ceremony was not opposed by the Filipinos and the missionaries reported large numbers of converts.

Zealous missionaries accompanied every expedition that left Spain for the Philippines. With Miguel Lopez de Legaspi¹ came Augustinian missionaries. A few years later, in 1577, the Franciscan friars followed. The Jesuits, full of enthusiasm on account of their recent successes in Europe, arrived in 1581. Not to be outdone and attracted by the oppor-

¹ He reached the Island of Leyte in 1565.

tunities for missionary work, the Dominican order sent some of its members in 1587. The Recollects arrived in Manila in 1606.

These pioneer missionaries, besides baptizing the Filipinos, founded schools in Luzon, the Bisayas, and Mindanao, wherever mission posts were established.

*Schools
and the En-
comiendas*

The Spanish government followed the practice of rewarding deserving persons or religious corporations in the colonies with land grants, which were called *encomiendas*. An *encomienda* might consist of several villages. The holder of an *encomienda*, known as *encomendero*, was empowered to collect tribute for his own use from the inhabitants, but he was enjoined to look after their welfare.

The *encomienda* system began in the Philippines as early as 1570. One of the obligations imposed upon the *encomenderos* was to give material assistance to the missionaries in their work of evangelization. While some *encomenderos* complied with this requirement, there were many who refused to do so and these committed so many abuses that Governor Santiago de Vera was constrained in 1586 to send a memorial to Spain complaining of the failure of the *encomenderos* to coöperate with the colonial government.¹ The bishop of the Philippines, Domingo de Salazar, urged the governor to compel all the *encomenderos* to support the schools in their *encomiendas* so that the inhabitants might receive adequate religious instruction. As a result of these ap-

¹ Blair and Robertson; *The Philippine Islands*, Vol. 6, p. 189.

peals, Governor Gomez Perez Dasmariñas issued an order in 1591 that a part of the tribute collected in the *encomiendas* should be devoted to the maintenance of schools.¹ In the *encomiendas* with few inhabitants schools could not be provided, because the tribute collected amounted to barely enough to support the *encomendero* and his family; but in the rich and populous *encomiendas* schools supported by tribute were founded.

One of the difficulties encountered by the Spaniards in dealing with the Filipinos was, naturally, the lack of a common medium of communication. It was, indeed, necessary that they should make themselves understood by the Filipinos, for they were eager, not only to make them Christians, but also to know the country and its riches—that is, precious metals and spices. The Spanish monarchs had instructed their officials to send the best of these commodities to the home country.

The Problem of Language

The Spanish missionaries gradually learned the various Philippine dialects which they found to be very helpful in their religious and educational work. However, the Council of the Indies at Madrid, which until 1837 made the laws for the administration of this colony, was of the opinion that the dialects were inadequate to convey Christian ideas. It insisted upon the use of the Castilian language.

The Filipinos showed great interest in learning the new language, according to the Jesuit missionary and writer Father Pedro Chirino. Old men, and even women, flocked to the mis-

¹ Blair and Robertson; *op. cit.*, Vol. 8, p. 28.

sion schools eager to study the new faith and the strange language; but there were not enough teachers to take care of so many pupils, a problem which remained to the end of the Spanish régime in the Philippines.

*Educational
Decrees*

In the history of the Spanish rule over these Islands one can find many educational decrees which came from Spain. They were framed by the Council of the Indies until 1837, and thereafter by the ministry of the colonies. The decrees were generally vague and inadequate, ordering the missionaries to teach the Spanish language and Christian doctrine, to build schoolhouses, and to compel children to attend school. The earliest of these decrees was dated July 17, 1550, issued in the name of Charles I, later Emperor Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire, which was for all the overseas possessions of Spain. It ordered the use of the Castilian language in the teaching of the Christian doctrine, and the assignment of sacristans as teachers, as was the practice in Spain. There was another decree by Philip IV under date of March 2, 1634, exhorting the archbishop and the bishops to teach the Filipinos the Christian doctrine and the Spanish language. This was also the subject matter of another decree of November 4, 1636. A more lengthy decree was one bearing the date June 20, 1686, which ordered that all the laws regarding public instruction should be enforced, and in case of failure to comply with this provision the responsible officials would be called to account. It stated further the reasons for the enforcement of the decrees—that

a knowledge of reading and writing, of the Christian doctrine, and of the Spanish language was essential to the welfare of the Filipinos and the glory of Spain; that the Christian doctrine should be taught diligently as it was the most efficient means of destroying idolatries and superstitions; that a knowledge of the Castilian language would protect the Filipinos against oppression by local officials and enable them to appeal directly to the higher authorities in case of trouble.¹ A decree of December 22, 1792, went as far as to forbid the use of the local dialects by the Filipinos and ordered that in the convents, monasteries, and the courts only the Castilian language should be used.

Subsequent decrees sent to these Islands in the eighteenth century reiterated and supplemented the provisions of the foregoing decrees. In some of these decrees the qualifications of teachers, who were to be paid by the government, were enumerated.

Many of the provisions of these decrees could not be carried out in the Philippines. The Council of the Indies was not acquainted with Philippine conditions. Its distance from the Islands and the inadequacy of means of communication between the colony and the mother country precluded a better understanding. Hence, the Council made laws which were impracticable in this country. They suffered a natural death upon their receipt here. All the necessary facilities for school work anticipated

*Enforce-
ment of the
Decrees*

¹ Blair and Robertson; *The Philippine Islands*, Vol. 45, pp. 184, 185; footnote, pp. 221, 222.

by these laws were nonexistent. For instance, for the support of schools, they set aside funds that did not exist, or which were so meager as to be negligible. In many decrees the municipal treasury was ordered to support the village schools; but in many towns the municipal treasury was in a precarious condition and oftentimes empty. Attempts to improve the municipal finances were made in the time of Governor Raon (1765-1770). This governor ordered that municipal funds, upon reaching a certain amount, should be invested in either land or marine enterprises and the proceeds should be used for the maintenance of schools for both sexes in each province.¹

The lack of trained teachers was another handicap in popular education. For this reason men and women who could barely read or write were employed to teach. The missionaries were extremely busy men. They were agriculturists, teachers, architects, administrators, physicians, confessors, and music leaders all in one. Under their supervision, churches and convents were built by the Filipinos, lands were planted, the sick were attended, and musical bands were organized.

Largely due to this fact the schools of the period taught only the rudiments of learning, generally reading and the Christian doctrine and rarely, arithmetic and writing. In some parish schools music was taught with a distinct purpose—to train singers for the church services.

¹ Blair and Robertson; *op. cit.*, Vol. 50, pp. 235, 236.

Reading material was meager. The Christian Doctrine was practically the only reader, and its teaching became the sole object of the schools. This little book was translated into the local dialects. The Spanish language hardly was heard in the popular schools. Thus, the many royal decrees requiring the missionaries to teach the Castilian language were not followed. Writing was not taught in many parish schools because of the lack of writing materials. Reckoning or arithmetic likewise was neglected, because there were not enough teachers.

For schoolhouses the ground floor of the convent, a portion of the stables, or (as in the town of Santa Ana, near Manila) a room in the municipal prison served the purpose.¹

In spite of the fact that not all the provisions of the royal decrees were carried out during the period from 1565 to 1768 there were popular schools all over the Philippine Islands under the control of the missionaries. The work of these schools was naturally the dissemination of Christian ideas.

The Jesuits, as the members of the Society of Jesus were commonly called, were the pioneers in the establishment of secondary schools. They began their educational work in these Islands in the sixteenth century. They were already achieving success in this field of endeavor in Europe. As early as 1563 they had

*The Establishment of
Secondary
Schools*

¹ Felix de Huerta; *Estado Geográfico, Topográfico, Estadístico, Histórico-Religioso de la Santa y Apostólica Provincia de S. Gregorio Magno*, Binondo, 1865, p. 52.

established in Paris the College of Clermont which became one of the rivals of the University of Paris. Leaders of the Counter Reformation, the Jesuits recognized that the best way of accomplishing their ends was to educate the prospective leaders of men. Their college in Paris attracted so many students that the enrollment in other schools fell off considerably. By the first decade of the seventeenth century they were the undisputed educators in France. Their leadership in education was due to their efficient organization and their sound pedagogical principles which were the most advanced at the time. In 1599 the *Ratio Studiorum*, the curriculum for the Jesuit schools, was adopted and no deviation from the plan was allowed. It was the work of the most learned members of the society.

College-
Seminary
of
San Ignacio

The first secondary school which they established was the College-Seminary of San Ignacio in Manila. The college seminary was a type of school in which ecclesiastics and students resided. The students were of two kinds; namely, those who were preparing for the priesthood and those who were seeking instruction above the elementary. Rhetoric, Latin, and philosophy constituted the secondary curriculum. Theology, canon law, and civil law were also taught. This institution was opened in 1585 and existed until the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1768.

College-
Seminary
of
San Ildefonso

In the town of Cebú the Jesuits opened in 1599 another college-seminary which was named San Ildefonso. Its first rector was Father Pedro Chirino who was then a mission-

ary in Leyte. Secondary-school instruction was given in this school.

In 1601 the Jesuits established another secondary school, in Manila. This was the famous College of San José, which later became the subject of a long controversy between the Jesuits and the Dominicans.

*College
of
San José*

The founding of this school was due to the efforts of Father Diego Garcia, a Jesuit, who had come to the Philippines in 1599. Governor Francisco Tello (1596-1602) granted the necessary civil license in which the object of the college was stated to be the "rearing in virtue and letters of some Spanish youths in view of the necessity of training ministers of the gospel, of whom there is a lack in this land."¹

At the very beginning it offered secondary instruction and remained as a secondary school until the expulsion of the Jesuits. It led a troublous life after that event.

The Jesuit colleges were maintained by income from various sources. The expenses of the College of San Ignacio were defrayed partly by the royal treasury which gave it 400 pesos and 400 *fanegas*² of cleaned rice yearly, and partly by the endowment fund of 1,000 pesos created by a Spaniard Esteban Rodriguez de Figueroa. The Jesuit College in Cebú also received annually from the royal treasury 200

¹ Colin; *Labor Evangelica*, Madrid, 1663, pp. 414-418, in Blair and Robertson, Vol. 45, pp. 101-111.

²A *fanega* was a dry measure, equivalent to 1.58 bushel, which was used in Spain and her colonies.

fanegas of rice and 200 pesos besides. From various persons interested in its work, it received donations. In December, 1606, a resident of the town of Cebú, Pedro de Aguilar, gave 1,400 pesos; in 1605 Alonso Freire de Céspedes donated a herd of cattle; and, later, other residents of Cebú gave building lots and the Mandawe Estate. With these endowments the college was amply provided for.

The College of San José was also well endowed. Esteban Rodriguez de Figueroa, governor of Mindanao and donor of the College of San Ignacio, bequeathed all his property for the support of this college. Part of his property was in Mexico, but the income therefrom was sent to Manila under certain restrictions, for there was then a law forbidding the transfer of money from one colony to another. In addition, it received money grants from the royal treasury after the disastrous earthquake of 1645, which destroyed many of its houses. The income derived from these houses was 14,000 pesos, as shown in a document of June 18, 1636. Between 1665 and 1669 it received from the king 20,000 pesos. In November, 1666, its property was further increased by the bequest of Bishop José Cabral of Camarines, consisting of several parcels of land. In 1707 the king further allowed the college 400 pesos and four hundred *fanegas* of rice annually, for a period of six years; in 1747 he gave it an *encomienda* in the Province of Samar which it held for twelve years; and in the next year



COLEGIO DE SAN JUAN DE LETRAN

he assigned to it the estates of Marikina and San Pedro Tunasan.¹

The Dominicans were the next religious order to establish a secondary school in Manila in 1611. This was the Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario, which afterwards became the College of Santo Tomás. Its real founder was Fray Miguel de Benavides, second archbishop of Manila, who bequeathed his library and the amount of sixteen hundred pesos for its support. The subjects taught in this school were Latin and Greek grammar, logic, philosophy, and elocution.

*Colegio de
Nuestra
Señora
del Rosario*

Another school which was administered by the Dominicans was the Colegio de San Juan de Letran. The beginning of this institution could be traced back to 1630 when a Spaniard by the name of Juan Gerónimo Guerrero began to gather in his own house orphan boys. He taught them the "three R's" and religion and gave them board and lodging. In a few years his wards increased in number and his means proved to be insufficient. Confident that the government would help him, he appealed to the governor-general Sebastian Hurtado de Corcuera. His plea was heeded and he obtained an *encomienda* and a lot in the Parian² in Manila. A year before his death (1639), he transferred his wards and his *encomienda* to the Dominicans who were also conducting a school for orphan boys which was called Colegio de

*Colegio de
San Juan
de Letran*

¹ Sinibaldo de Mas; *Informe sobre el Estado de Filipinas en 1842*, Madrid, 1843. Vol. I, p. 4.

² The Parian was a district in Manila outside of the Walled City for Chinese residents.

San Pedro y San Pablo. In 1706 the school adopted the name Colegio de San Juan de Letran.

The important schools founded from the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries were located in Manila, the capital. This city was destined to be the center of education in the Philippines. Students from all parts of the Archipelago had gathered here to study since the sixteenth century.

THE RISE OF UNIVERSITIES

The University of San Ignacio, 1621-1768

In the seventeenth century there were two universities in the Philippines. The first to be established was the University of San Ignacio of the Society of Jesus. Originally a secondary school, it was raised to the rank of a university by Pope Gregory XV in 1621. It began to confer degrees in 1626 on the students of the College of San José. The university was closed in 1768 upon the expulsion of the Jesuits.

The Jesuits were empowered to grant university degrees, on Jesuit scholars only, by Pope Julius II in 1522; but later, in 1561, Pope Pius IV allowed them to confer university degrees on other students as well. Pope Gregory XIII in 1578 confirmed this right of the society.¹

Contemporary writers reported that the University of San Ignacio was housed in a beautiful building and that it possessed a library which had no equal at that time in the Philippines.²

¹ Delgado; *Historia de Filipinas*, p. 225.

² Le Gentil; in Blair and Robertson, Vol. 28, p. 201n.

The University of San Ignacio was for a long time the subject of controversy between the rival religious orders of the Jesuits and of the Dominicans. The Dominicans denied the right of the Jesuits to grant degrees, on the ground that they had not been authorized to do so by the Spanish king. The fact remained, however, that the University of San Ignacio conferred degrees from 1626 to 1768, when it was closed.¹

The other university was the former College of Santo Tomás under the Dominicans. This college began to confer degrees in the same year as the University of San Ignacio, although it was not converted into a royal and pontifical university until 1645. About 1639 negotiations were begun by the Dominicans in the Philippines with the King of Spain for the elevation of the college to a university. The Spanish king appealed to Pope Innocent X, in 1644, through the Spanish ambassador at the Vatican, Count of Siruela, requesting him to grant a bull authorizing the change from college to university, that it might have the same status as the Dominican universities at Avila and Pamplona. The same petition had been presented to Innocent X's predecessor, Pope Urban VIII, who for some unknown reason did not grant it. Innocent X reminded the king's envoy of this fact and refused to grant the request in their first interview. The Spanish

The University of Santo Tomás, 1645-1768

¹ On the controversy regarding this question see Artigas; *La Instrucción en Filipinas* printed in *Cultura Filipina*, a monthly review, May, 1915, pp. 140-169.

envoy was not discouraged. He sought the mediation of Cardinal Saqueti, who was in favor at the Vatican, and he succeeded. The petition was referred to four cardinals who recommended it favorably to the pope. Accordingly, the pope issued the necessary bull in November, 1645.

In the University of Santo Tomás from the very beginning dogmatic and moral theology, philosophy, and the humanities were taught. The humanities included grammar, rhetoric, and poetics. The courses in theology and philosophy included the study of the works of Saint Thomas Aquinas, particularly his greatest work, the *Summa Theologica* which was the most thorough and complete presentation of the theology of the church. It is still approved by the Roman Catholic Church as the orthodox presentation of its beliefs. In Europe this was one of the greatest scholastic textbooks of the time.

The theological studies in the University of Santo Tomás were dominated by scholasticism, which was the complete reduction of religious thought to logical form. It emphasized the abstract and the immaterial. In scholastic literature all objections to the orthodox view are answered and all unorthodox interpretations are refuted.

The influence of the Renaissance on the university was shown in the inclusion in its curriculum of grammar, rhetoric, and poetics, studies not found in medieval education. These were the subject that expressed the æsthetic element

of Renaissance education. However, this humanistic education, was reduced to a formal character, relating solely to the study of language and literature, with emphasis on their structural side. The mastering of this narrow humanistic education and the subject matter of school work became a prolonged drill in Latin grammar and a detailed grammatical and rhetorical study of Latin texts. Consequently, there was tremendous emphasis upon the memorizing powers. A command of Latin was acquired through frequent exercises in declamation, oratory, and the presentation of the comedies of Plautus and Terence.

In 1707 another university was ordered established in Manila by a royal decree.¹ This was called the Royal University of San Felipe. The royal decree set aside 10,000 pesos annually for its maintenance. According to the decree, law was to be taught in this institution, in order that it might produce trained lawyers to replace the pseudo lawyers² who abounded in the country. The university remained open until 1726, when its work was taken over by the Jesuit university.³

The University of San Felipe, 1707-1726

SCHOOLS FOR WOMEN

During the period under study the education of women was not neglected. The royal decrees ordered the establishment of popular

¹ Artigas; *Historia de Filipinas*, Manila, 1916, p. 151.

² *Picapleitos*.

³ Artigas, *op. cit.*, p. 151. According to Tavera this university was opened in 1718 and closed in 1730 by royal decree.

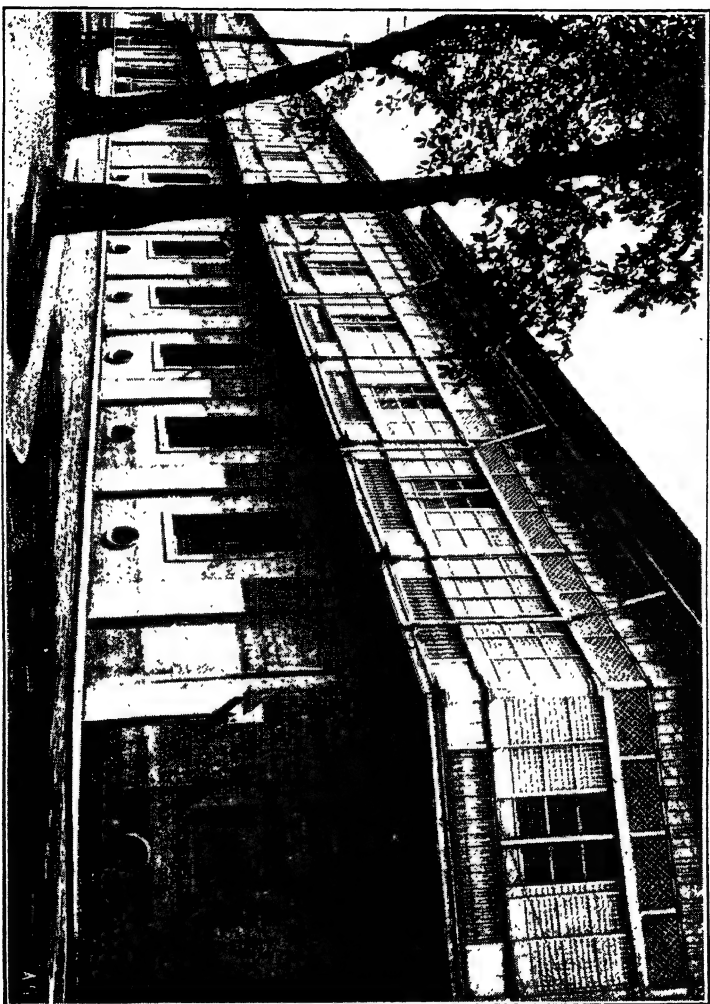
schools for both boys and girls. There were classes for girls in all the parochial schools in Manila as well as in the provinces.

*Santa
Potenciana*

Besides the common schools, there were boarding schools for girls, similar to those existing in western Europe. Of this type of institution the first to be founded was the Convent of Santa Potenciana. It was opened in 1591, in compliance with a royal decree which ordered the governor-general to establish a school and home for Spanish girls, especially orphans. In the royal decree was the following passage which revealed the prevailing ideal of education for women: "Upon arriving in the Philippine Islands you shall ascertain how and where and with what endowment a convent for the shelter of girls may be founded, so that those who should come from here and those born there may live in it decently and, after being instructed, may go out therefrom to be married and bear children."¹ Another royal ordinance, of June 11, 1594, provided for the internal regulation of the convent. The convent received from the government annually 700 pesos, 690 gantas of unpolished rice, 25 quintals of wood, and 17 gantas of coconut oil for lighting purposes. The subsequent history of this institution will be recounted later.

In 1632 another school and home for women was founded. This was the Colegio de Santa Isabel which became one of the best schools for girls during the Spanish era. Its founder was a charitable society called the Confraternity of

¹ Mas; *Estado de Filipinas*, Vol. II, p. 7.



COLEGIO DE SANTA ISABEL, FOUNDED IN 1632 IN MANILA

Holy Mercy.¹ Spanish orphan girls were admitted to this house. They received a little instruction in the "three R's," religion, and household arts. The expenses of the institution, which usually amounted to 10,800 pesos yearly, were borne by the society. Upon the marriage of a girl, she received a small dowry from the society.

Another type of school for girls which arose during this period was the *beaterio*. This was a house for women who preferred to live in seclusion and who professed a special devotion to a particular saint. A school for young girls was usually to be found in these houses. Such were the Beaterio de Santa Catalina founded in 1696 by Francisca de Espiritu Santo (a Spanish woman born in Manila) with the help of the provincial of the Dominicans, Fray Juan de Santo Domingo; and the Beaterio de San Ignacio established by the Jesuits in 1699.

*The
Beaterio*

In the eighteenth century more schools for girls were founded. In 1719 four Filipino women opened the Beaterio de San Sebastian. They took in orphan girls and taught them reading, writing, the catechism, and sewing and other household work. The orphans performed housework in return for their instruction and board. Pay students were also admitted. These women can be considered as the Filipino pioneers in the field of education.

In 1740 an Augustinian friar, Fray Felix Trillo, established in Pasig, a town near Ma-

¹ This was the Santa Misericordia, founded in Manila in 1594 by Juan Fernandez de Leon.

nila, a school for girls, naming it Beaterio de Santa Rita.

A decade later the Beaterio de Santa Rosa was opened in Manila by a Spanish woman by the name of Paula de la Santísima Trinidad. In these institutions both Spanish and Filipino girls were admitted.

Curriculum

The instruction given in both types of schools—the college and the *beaterio*—was of a practical nature. As the chief aim of these institutions was to prepare women either for motherhood or for a religious life, there was little academic instruction. The “three R’s,” Christian doctrine, and needlework comprised the whole curriculum. In the College of Santa Isabel there were only two teachers—the directress, who gave lessons in catechisms and Spanish grammar, and a male teacher who went there now and then to teach arithmetic.¹ At that time this amount of training was regarded as sufficient for women. Murillo Velarde, in his account of the Jesuit missions from 1616 to 1716, asserted that the girls in Santa Isabel College were receiving “admirable education.”

Comparatively speaking there was no marked difference between women’s schools in the Philippines and those in Europe. In France, for instance, in the eighteenth century there were two kinds of schools for girls; one was intended for the upper class which gave training in the “accomplishments”, and the other was for the lower class and taught the “three

¹ *Breve Reseña Histórica de la Labor Realizada en estas Islas por la Doble Familia de San Vicente de Paul, 1862-1912*, Manila, 1912, p. 118.

R's". The studies called accomplishments were music, vocal and instrumental, and needlework. After the French Revolution there was a slight improvement in the schools for women.

In England, about 1655, there was an endowed school for girls in which reading and needlework made up the curriculum. After the Restoration (1660) there sprang up many private schools for girls in which were taught "breeding, deportment, and the accomplishments."¹

The schools for women in the Philippines gave the same kind of instruction as did their contemporaries in European countries.

THE INTRODUCTION OF PRINTING

The introduction of printing was a significant factor in the educational development of the Philippines. One of the reasons for the scarcity of printed matter in the early years of Spanish rule was the high cost of bringing such from abroad. Manuscripts written in the Philippines had to be sent at great risk, either to Europe or to Mexico to be printed; in some cases they were lost on the way. With the establishment of local printing presses these difficulties were overcome. More reading matter became available. Books, and later newspapers, began to be published in the Philippines.

The first method of printing known in the Philippines was xylography. It was introduced

¹ Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. V, pp. 799-803.

from China, where the art was widely practiced. The extant specimens of this type of printing are two catechisms—one in the Chinese language and the other in the Tagalog language. In 1593 they were sent to the Spanish king by Governor Dasmariñas.

Printing with movable type was introduced in 1602 by Fray Blancas de San José, a Dominican. The press was installed in the Hospital of San Gabriel in Binondo.¹ Much later it was transferred to the building of the College of Santo Tomás and became known as the press of Santo Tomás. This press of the Dominican order is considered the first as well as the oldest printing press in the Philippines. The Franciscans and the Jesuits established their own printing presses later.

The first book printed on the new press was a religious work in Tagalog by Fray Francisco Blancas de San José entitled *Our Lady of the Rosary*.² The printer was a Chinese convert, Juan de Vera.

*Filipino
Printers*

The Filipinos learned the art of printing and many of them became masters of the art. The names of these printers generally appeared on the books they printed. Tomás Pinpin, Simon Pinpin, Gaspar Aquino de Belen, Nicolas de la Cruz Bagay, Cipriano Romualdo Bagay, Domingo Loag, Diego Talaghay, Raymun-

¹ A village outside the Walled City; now it is one of the districts of the City of Manila.

² Fray Blancas de San José arrived in 1595 and was assigned to Bataan where he learned the Tagalog language in a few months. Because of his mastery of the language he was called the "Cicero of Tagalog."

do Magisa, Pedro Ignacio Advincula, and Agustin de la Rosa y Balagtas were famous printers in their day.

Tomás Pinpin learned printing from Fray Blancas de San José. Assisted by Domingo Loag he printed the *Vocabulario de la Lengua Tagala* by Fray Pedro de San Buenaventura, a Franciscan friar, in the town of Pila, Province of Laguna, in 1613.¹ His name appears also on another book printed in 1639, *Relación de la Vida y Martirio del Jesuita P. Mastrilli*, by P. Gerónimo Perez de Nueros, Manila. Tomás Pinpin was not only a printer, but also an author. He was the author of *Librong Pag-aralan nang manga Tagalog nang wicang Castila*, a book for the study of the Spanish language. The name of Simon Pinpin who was probably the son of Tomás Pinpin, appeared on several works between 1643 and 1669.

Gaspar Aquino de Belen was both printer and translator. He printed Fray Mateo Sanchez' book entitled *Vocabulario de la Lengua Bisaya* in 1711.² He translated into Tagalog a book of devotion, *Recomendación del Alma* by Father Villacastin.³

¹ There are two conflicting opinions regarding the ownership of the press of the Dominicans which was borrowed by the Franciscans and placed in their convent in Pila. (Medina, *La Imprenta en Manila*, 1896, p. 35). Tavera thinks that it belonged to Pinpin. (Tavera; *Noticias sobre la Imprenta, etc.*, 1893, p. 642).

² A copy of this book can be found in the British Museum.

³ The title of the Tagalog translation is *Mañga panalañgin patata gobilin sa caloloua nang taong*

Nicolas de la Cruz Bagay was a noted Tagalog printer, engraver, and author. He engraved the first map of the Philippine Islands, and in 1749 printed the *Historia de la Provincia de Filipinas* by Father Murillo Velarde. He also printed Fray Domingo Esguerra's *Arte de la lengua bisaya de la provincia de Leyte*, 1747; and Father Juan de Noceda and Father Pedro de San Lucar's *Vocabulario de la lengua tagala*, 1754, and the Tagalog translation of Fray Salazar's *Meditaciones*, 1762.

Agustin de la Rosa y Balagtas printed in 1788 the first five volumes of Fray Juan de la Concepción's *Historia General de Filipinas*.

Below is a partial list of books printed in the Philippines in the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Doctrina cristiana tagalo-española con texto castellano y latino. Manila, 1593.

Doctrina cristiana en lengua china. Manila, 1593.

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Engraving

Besides printing, engraving was learned by the Filipinos. In addition to Nicolas de la Cruz Bagay, already mentioned earlier in this chapter, there were other well-known Filipino engravers—Laureano Atlas, Cipriano Bagay, Felipe Sevilla, and Pedro Ignacio Advíncula. Nicolas de la Cruz Bagay had to his credit not only the first map of the Philippine Islands, but also two medallions attached to the map, one containing the title and the other representing various islands and sailing vessels, as well as an engraving of the image of *Santo Cristo del Tesoro*, venerated by many people in the Philippines.

Laureano Atlas was a native of Manila and an artist of merit. Samples of his work can be found in the third volume of San Antonio's *Crónicas* and Murillo Velarde's history. The engraving in the *Crónicas*, representing twenty-

three Franciscan martyrs in Japan, and the engravings of the *Virgen de la Rota* and *Virgen de Antipolo* were his work. They reveal unusual ability in the engraver's art.

Cipriano Bagay was the engraver of a locally famous virgin—the virgin of Obando.¹ An extant sample of Pedro Ignacio Advíncula's work is an engraving which represents souls in purgatory. The engraving of a virgin surrounded by angels which appeared in an announcement of indulgences in Manila in 1794 is attributed to Felipe Sevilla.

With the advent of local printers and engravers, the making of books became possible in the Philippines. Although both printing and engraving were used for religious purposes mainly, they nevertheless encouraged writing, especially chronology. Philippine historiography was enriched by the introduction of printing and engraving.

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CHAPTER II

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION, 1768-1863

It has been shown in the preceding chapter that, by the middle of the eighteenth century, colleges and universities had been founded in the Philippines. There were also schools exclusively for women. Popular schools could be found all over the Islands. All these institutions were patterned after those in western Europe.

The period covered by the present chapter begins with the retirement of the Jesuits from educational activities in 1768. The Philippines thus lost the services of these teachers whose work was already appreciated by the educated classes. One of the educational institutions that suffered by this loss was the College of San José. From 1768 the college began to decline and lose its usefulness. It led such a precarious existence that in 1875 the government converted it into a college of medicine and pharmacy, and placed it under the University of Santo Tomás.

During this period, however, there was a notable advance in vocational education. Several vocational schools were established in the early part of the century.

*Vocational
Schools*

In 1820 a nautical school was founded, in response to the demand for trained Filipinos to serve in the Spanish merchant marine. The Spanish government was opposed to the employment of foreigners, such as Dutch, Eng-

*The Nauti-
cal School*

lish, and French, on its ships, and preferred Filipinos for this service. The school was maintained by the board of commerce at the beginning, but later the government took over its control. The course of study was prepared by Don Gabriel Ciscar, then commander of the royal fleet. It covered a period of four years. After the student had completed his studies in the school, he was required to serve on a ship for practical training. The enrollment was generally small and contemporary observers lamented the lack of interest among Filipino youths in this calling. A setback to the progress of the school was the earthquake of 1863, which destroyed its building.

*The Agri-
cultural
School*

The year following the opening of the nautical school, the government and the Economic Society of Friends of the Country¹ discussed a plan to establish a school of agriculture. The Economic Society offered to pay the salary of one professor. The school was finally opened on July 2, 1889.²

*The
Commercial
School*

Upon petition of the board of commerce of Manila, a commercial school was organized in 1840. The petition called attention to the need for men trained in business transactions and operations in the Philippines, on account of the expansion of commerce of the Islands.³ The course of study was modelled after that of the commercial schools in Bilbao, Cadiz, and

¹ *Sociedad Económica de los Amigos del País*, see p. 45.

² The royal decree creating the school bore the date November 26, 1887.

³ The petition, in manuscript, is in the Philippine Library.

Barcelona. The subjects taught were book-keeping, commercial correspondence, French, and English. The students paid no fee. During the period 1866 to 1882 the total enrollment was 562. Of this number 91 graduated.

A school of fine arts was opened in 1849. It was intended for those who possessed artistic ability but could not go to Europe to study. Here students stayed as long as they wished to; there were no fixed terms, no examinations, and no academic requirements. They studied drawing, painting, sculpture, and engraving.

*The School
of Fine
Arts*

Vocational education found many advocates among the Filipinos. In the Province of Pampanga a school of arts and trades was established in the town of Bacolor in 1861, through the initiative of Father Juan Zita, a citizen of Lubao,¹ and Felino Gil. The school was maintained by voluntary contributions of the natives of the province and the income derived from the donation of Father Zita, consisting of a house in Binondo.² Unfortunately, the school building was burned in 1869. It was reconstructed in 1892 but was burned again in 1896. The school was then closed.

*Trade
School*

In writing the history of vocational education in the Philippines, the contribution of the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country must not be ignored. This society was founded in 1781. It commenced its educational activities in 1823 by distributing gratis 1,320 cop-

*Economic
Society
of the
Friends of
the Country*

¹ A town in Pampanga Province.

² The amount contributed by private citizens between 1861 and 1868 was 33,882 pesos. Artigas; *Historia de Filipinas*, p. 446.

ies of books on grammar, orthography, and reading designed for popular use. In the following year it ordered the translation, printing, and free distribution of a practical book entitled *Guide for the Lancastrian Mutual System of Education*. The book popularized the Lancastrian method in the Philippine schools. The interest of this society in agricultural education has already been mentioned. It established a school of drawing in 1824, from which students were graduated in 1828. The society also published a manual of the elements of drawing. In order to foster the weaving industry it paid for the instruction of eight Filipinos in the art of dyeing, in 1825. In 1838, it sent some young men abroad to study mechanics. With its own funds it established a museum in 1850.¹ To help defray the cost of printing Father Blanco's *Flora Filipina* it contributed the sum of 500 pesos. In addition, the society offered prizes for literary works on the economic conditions of the country and for useful inventions. For instance, in 1853 it awarded a prize of 2,000 pesos and a medal of honor to Candido Lopez Diaz for his invention consisting of a machine for cleaning abacá.

From this brief sketch it can be seen that the Economic Society showed much interest in and fostered vocational training.

*Project of
Educational
Reform*

In 1820, as a result of the successful Liberal uprising in Spain, the Constitution of 1812 was enforced. The Cortes, imbued with liberal ideas, discussed projects of reform for Spain

¹ Blair and Robertson; *op. cit.*, Vol. 52, p. 309.

and her colonies. One of these was a plan of public instruction for the Philippines, which was approved on June 24, 1821. The plan would establish an extensive system of public instruction, from the lowest grade to the university. Under this plan there would be established a primary school in every town of one hundred inhabitants and a university in every province. However, the law stipulated that, for the time being, only Manila should have a university. All the chairs in the university were to be filled by competitive examination, to be given by examiners appointed by the department of instruction¹ in Mexico. The university was to be equipped with a library, open to the public, a chemistry laboratory, a physics laboratory, a museum of natural history and industrial products, a historical museum, a space for agricultural experiments, and models of machinery. There should also be created in Manila, and placed under the university, an academy of drawing, a medical school, and a veterinary school. Special schools of commerce, astronomy, and navigation were also to be organized and placed under the direction of the polytechnic school of Madrid. The curriculum for the secondary school is also described. It should consist of two courses in Spanish and Latin grammar, two courses in geography and chronology, two courses in literature and history, two courses in mathematics, one course in botany and agriculture, one course in zoology, one course in logic and general grammar, one course in political economy and statistics, one

¹ *Subdirección de Estudios.*

course in moral and natural law, and one course in public law. Schools for girls were to be established, according to the plan.

This law would have endowed the Philippines with a system of public schools early in the nineteenth century, but it was not enforced, on account of the defeat of the Liberals in 1823. With the triumph of Ferdinand VII all the reactionary forces resumed their dominance and Liberal ideas were abandoned.

*The Public
School Sys-
tem*

During this period, 1768-1863, serious efforts were made to organize a system of public schools for the whole Archipelago. Beginning with the administration of Captain-General Felix Berenguer de Marquina, public education received some official attention. This governor ordered that the provisions of the royal decrees of 1770, 1772, 1774, and 1778 concerning the establishment of primary schools in every town in the Islands be carried out. The successors of Berenguer de Marquina likewise showed interest in public education by giving similar orders. In 1855 Governor Manuel Crespo appointed a commission to study the problem of public education. The governor took this step in view of complaints that had been received by the central government from teachers. Two teachers in Laoag, Ilocos Norte, had sent to the governor-general a request for increase in their salary, complaining about the meagerness of their remuneration, which was only 3 pesos a month.¹ Governor Crespo instructed the commission—

¹ See Artigas; *Historia de Filipinas*, p. 449.

- To fix the number of men and women teachers on the basis of the number of persons paying tribute in each town;
- To draft regulations which would make uniform the instruction in and administration of all schools;
- To determine the content of the curriculum of the schools for both sexes. The study of the Spanish language was to be included in the curriculum;
- To consider and report on the advisability of establishing a school for teachers in the City of Manila.

The commission existed for many years. It encountered many difficulties. One of these was the instability of the term of office of the governor-general. Owing to this fact many projects of reform failed to materialize. Examples of the brevity of the term of office of the various governors-general are cited by Vicente Barrantes:¹

Marcelino Oraa, December, 1838, to February, 1841.

Francisco de Paula Alcala, June, 1843.

Narciso Claveria, July, 1844.

Antonio Maria Blanco (acting), December, 1849.

Antonio de Urbiztondo, June, 1850, to December, 1853.

Ramon Montero (acting), December, 1853.

Marques de Novaliches, February-October, 1854.

Ramon Montero (acting), October, 1854.

¹ Vicente Barrantes; *La Instrucción Primaria en Filipinas*, Manila, 1869.

Manuel Crespo, November, 1854, to December, 1856.

For this reason the superior government was unable to maintain a consistent educational policy. Governor Crespo, who created the commission, retired in 1856.

Another problem discussed by the commission was the teaching of the Spanish language. Should the Spanish language be taught to the Filipinos or not? An influential member of the commission, then vice-rector of the University of Santo Tomás, Fray Francisco Gainza, opposed the teaching of Spanish, arguing that the scheme would give the Filipinos a common language and pave the way for the coming in of Protestant ideas. Fray Gainza's arguments served to strengthen the contention of the anti-friars that all the friars were against the teaching of Spanish. Barrantes, who was at one time adviser to the captain-general of the Philippines and attached to the ministry of the colonies, contended that, with the exception of the testimony of Fray Gainza, there was no further proof that the friars were opposed to the teaching of Spanish to the Filipinos.¹ On the contrary, he alleged, the initiative in teaching the Spanish language had come from the Augustinian friars, who as early as 1596 instructed their missionaries to teach, not only reading and writing, but the Spanish language as well.

With the help of several Jesuit fathers, the commission finally completed its task and submitted its report in March, 1861. This report

¹ *Op. cit.*

formed the basis of the laws of December, 1863, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

There was marked improvement in higher education. In the University of Santo Tomás some reforms were introduced. In 1785 a school of medicine was established. New chairs of mathematics, literature, Holy Scriptures, canonical law, and Roman law were added to the university curriculum. With these changes the theological course comprised five years of study. The studies in the first year included metaphysics, Greek, Hebrew, introduction to sacred theology, and introduction to Holy Scriptures; in the second, third, fourth, and fifth years, advanced courses in dogmatic theology, canons, the Bible, church history, and morals. The medical course covered four years of study and the subjects were distributed as follows:

The University of Santo Tomás

First year

Organic and inorganic chemistry; embryology; general anatomy, first course; normal histology; general physiology.

Second Year

General anatomy, second course; technical anatomy; bacteriology; parasitology; medical zoology, with laboratory work; physiology; toxicology.

Third Year

Art of making prescriptions; pathological histology; surgical anatomy; surgical practice; physical diagnosis; electrotherapy; hydrotherapy, etc.

Fourth Year

Pathology; tropical medicine; clinical work, etc.

This medical course was suspended because of the lack of students. It was again offered in 1871.

In 1785 professorships were ordered to be filled by competitive examination, and lecturers who were bachelors of arts must have had an experience of four years. Students of arts, theology, canons, law, or medicine were exempted from military service, payment of tribute, and personal service. This privilege was limited in 1854 to students who had passed the annual examinations.

Examination for Degrees

To obtain any degree the candidate was required by the university statutes to submit to an oral and a public examination. The candidate for the degree of bachelor in theology, or any other faculty, must defend three theses in a public session. He was opposed by three bachelors. If his defense was satisfactory, he received the degree. The fees for this examination were 3 pesos, to be paid to the rector; 2 pesos, to the university treasury; 2 pesos, to the chairman of the examination committee; 3.50 pesos, to the secretary; 1 peso, to the warden; 1 peso, each, to the opponents; and 1 peso, to the master of ceremonies.

For the degree of licentiate, the candidate must be a holder of the bachelor's degree. He must also defend three theses in a public session. The subjects were given to the candidate in the university chapel after mass, in the presence of the rector, the four youngest

doctors of the faculty, and the other university officials. After the rector had announced the subjects, he would give the candidate one hour in which to prepare his arguments and conclusions in writing and send them to the four doctors who would argue with him. The candidate was then ordered to retire and to appear the next day at five o'clock in the afternoon for the oral examination. At the appointed hour the rector, the god-father (*padrino*), who was the dean of the faculty, the doctors and masters of the faculty, and the secretary assembled in the chapel. After a brief prayer, the candidate began his peroration, which lasted three quarters of an hour. The candidate was then allowed a brief recess. The *padrino* would fetch him back and he would read his arguments on the other theses. The young doctors would argue with the candidate for about two hours. Then the judges cast their votes by depositing them in the two silver urns placed on the table. The grade of the candidate might be either *aprobado*, *notable*, *sobresaliente*, or *desaprobado*, meaning, respectively, "passed," "fair," "excellent" or "failed." The grade was indicated in the diploma. This examination was commonly known as *noche triste* (sad night).

The procedure in the examination of candidates for the doctorate was the same, but the conferring of the degree was elaborate. It took two days. On one day there was an academic parade (*paseo*) through the streets of the city, starting from the university. All the participants rode on horseback, with the excep-

tion of the musicians. The mace bearers, bearing the maces on their shoulders, followed the musicians; then came the warden, the master of ceremonies, the secretary and treasurer of the university, the master of arts two by two, the doctors and masters of theology, and lastly the candidate for the doctorate riding between the rector on the right and the dean on the left. Closing the procession was a man on horseback carrying a truncheon and the cap and tassel of the candidate. He was attended by lackeys and pages in livery. On the second day at eight o'clock in the morning the same procession would go to the church of Santo Domingo in the Walled City for the solemn act of conferring the degree. Sometimes the governor-general would be present and he occupied the seat of honor in the church, the rector sitting at his right and the dean at his left. On a table placed at one side were the doctor's insignia, cap, ring, book, and the gifts for distribution consisting of money and gloves, in accordance with the statutes. All those who had joined the procession were seated according to rank. A mass was said. After this the dean would be led by the master of ceremonies and the beadles to the table holding the insignia, and the candidate was led to the rector. The candidate delivered an oration in Latin, the so-called petition, praying for the insignia. The rector answered in Latin, ordering him to go to the dean. The candidate, facing the dean, repeated his petition. The dean would kiss him on the cheek, saying *Accipe osculum pacis in signum fraterni-*

tates, amicitiae, et unionis, cum Academia nostra. In giving the insignia the dean repeated the following formulas: For the ring, *Accipe anulum aureum in signum desponsationis et conjugii inter te et sapientiam tamquam sponsam charissimam*; for the book, *Accipe librum sapientiae ut posses libere et publice alios docere*. If the candidate was a physician, the dean would say: *Non minus militant doctores medici morbos profligando, quam milites fortes inimicos superando*. If the candidate was a secular, a sword would be given to him and the dean would say: *Accipe ensum deauratum in signum militiae, non enim minus militant Doctores adversus inimicos corporis*, and spurs would be placed on his heels, the dean saying *Accipe calcaria aurea; nam quumadmodum equites hostiliter prorumpunt in inimicos, ita doctores adversus ignorantiae catervam*. After delivering the insignia the dean would take the candidate by the hand and lead him to the professor's chair, saying to him *Ascendi in cathedram et sede in eam, ut tamquam Doctor Jura Canonica possis expendere ac interpretari*, if a doctor in canons; he would say *Doctor Jura Civilia*, if a doctor in laws; *Doctor Jura Sacras Literas*, if a doctor in theology; *Doctor Jura Hypocratem et Galenum*, if a doctor in medicine; *Aristotelem*, if in arts. With his hands on the Gospels, the candidate would take an oath of loyalty to the university and, addressing the rector in Latin, he petitioned for the degree of doctor. He knelt and the rector placed on his head the doctor's cap. The new doctor gave thanks in Latin. Then the dean introduced

him to the guests. The rector, the dean, and all the doctors present embraced him fraternally. Lastly, the new doctor distributed the "gifts and gloves"¹ as follows:

To the rector—12 pesos and two pairs of gloves.
 To the dean—12 pesos and two pairs of gloves.
 To the treasurer—6 pesos.
 To the secretary—4 pesos.
 To the master of ceremonies—2 pesos.
 To the beadle—2 pesos.
 To each doctor of the faculty of the degree—6 pesos and one pair of gloves.
 To each doctor of other faculties—4 pesos and one pair of gloves.
 To the critics—6 pesos.

*Student
Activities*

University students had many extra-curricular activities. Debates were frequently held. Dramatic performances were given now and then. Banquets and programs were given in honor of high church dignitaries. Thus, university life gave the students an opportunity to display their talents and to make social contacts.

*Student
Uniform*

The University of Santo Tomás required its students to wear a uniform—a black coat and trousers, cut in Spanish style. It forbade the wearing to the university of colored clothing and long hair. The rector was empowered to enforce this regulation strictly.

*Student
Loyalty*

Upon matriculation, all students were required to swear obedience *in licitis et honestis* to the rector of the university. Thus matriculated, all students were bound to obey the rector's orders and the university statutes.

*Student
Privileges*

Since the seventeenth century the full-fledged students of the university enjoyed some privileges as provided in royal cédulas. They

¹ *Propinas y guantes.*

were exempted from military service, *polo*,¹ and tribute. The holders of bachelor degrees were also exempted from *polo*. Governor Basco confirmed all these privileges of students in an order issued in 1781.

The rector of the university had the right to look after the private life of the students. He could admonish or expel those who did not lead an exemplary life. He obliged them to live in decent houses and to attend all university functions.

*Supervision
over
Students*

Later, in 1826, some academic regulations were introduced in the university. In order to entitle students to promotion to the next higher grade, they were required to pass an examination at the beginning of every school year. In order to be permitted to study theology, ethics, canons, and law, the student must have had three courses in philosophy. The law students were also required to study canon law. For the degree of bachelor of laws attendance at lectures for four years was required. The course included the study of national law, the code of *Novísima Recopilación*, *Siete Partidas*, *Laws of the Indies*, civil and criminal procedure, and others. The students of philosophy of the College of San José were required to pass an entrance examination before they were admitted to the law course.

Promotion

The Spanish king manifested a lively interest in higher education. In 1842 he created a commission composed of one member of the Royal Audiencia, the rector of the University of Santo Tomás, a prebend of the Cathedral,

*Reforms in
Higher
Education*

¹ Personal service of forty days in the year.

one official of the Ayuntamiento, and one representative of the *Sociedad Económica de los Amigos del País*. This commission was empowered to draft a plan of study suitable to the Philippines. It rendered its report in 1844, which was approved by the king in 1846. The commission recommended the creation of new chairs of medicine, pharmacy, and physics, and some improvement in the teaching of philosophy, theology, and jurisprudence.

*Enrollment
and
Graduation*

The enrollment in the University of Santo Tomás from 1734 to 1865 can be seen in the following tables:

1734-1820	
<i>Courses</i>	<i>Number of students</i>
Philosophy	12,500
Theology	3,190
Canon law	11,680
Law	3,360
1820-1850	
Philosophy	4,551
Theology	915
Canon law	506
Institutes	1,450
National law	280
1850-1865	
Philosophy	5,024
Theology	158
Canon and Roman laws	1,439
Law	461

The University of Santo Tomás conferred the following degrees:

1734-1800	
Philosophy:	
Bachelor of Arts	580
Licentiate	29
Doctor	20
Theology:	
Bachelor	29
Licentiate	11
Doctor	6

Canon law:	
Bachelor	29
Licentiate	8
Doctor	5

1800-1865

A total of 928 degrees.

Since 1859, by royal order, these degrees were recognized as equivalent to those granted by the universities in Spain. This was a decided gain for higher education in the Philippines.

The University of Santo Tomás suffered from lack of sufficient funds. In the memorial of Father Francisco de Ayala, rector (1829-1841), we read of the instability of the sources of income of the institution. The properties of the university did not yield enough for its maintenance. Earthquake, fire, and other accidents damaged these properties, which consisted mainly of houses. However, the university authorities sold some of the houses and invested the money thus received in agricultural lands in Gagalangin, Navotas, and Malabon. Until 1834 the income from these estates was still insufficient to defray all the expenses of the university, which amounted to about 13,000 pesos yearly.

*Financial
Status*

THE PRESS

Of importance to our educational history was the publication of newspapers. The first newspaper in the Philippines was *Del Superior Gobierno*, which was published for the first time on August 8, 1811, and continued until 1815. The purpose of this paper was to disseminate news, such as that appearing in English ga-

zettes published in Bengal. Its issuance depended upon the arrival of the mail from Europe, for it was the stirring events in Europe and South America since 1809 that had inspired the publication of the newspaper. In 1813, another news sheet appeared under the title *Noticias sacadas de las Gazetas*. There was only one issue that could be regarded as a real newspaper, for it contained news of the war of independence in Spain, an account of the fighting between the Moros and the Spaniards at sea, and Philippine news besides. A weekly publication, of a partisan nature, appeared in Manila in 1821. It was called *Ramillete Patriótico Manilense*. It was a liberal paper, in favor of the constitutional régime in Spain. Its political opinions roused the ire of the local conservatives and religious orders. Mainly to refute the assertions of this paper another periodical, entitled *Latigazo*, came out in 1821. Both papers were short-lived. The year 1821 saw the birth of other newspapers, such as the *Noticioso Filipino*, of which only two numbers are extant, in the *Archivo de Indias* in Spain; and the weekly *La Filantropia*, a champion of liberalism. Interesting articles could be found in this weekly. In its issue for November 22, 1821, there was an article denouncing racial discrimination in the admission of students in such schools as the *Escuela Pia*, *Academia de Pilotage*, and others. Such practice, according to the writer was contrary to the spirit of the constitution. Students of all classes should be admitted; otherwise, the schools should be closed. In

another number, dated December 15, 1821, there was an article complaining of the strict enforcement of censorship regulations and citing as an example the prohibition against the importation of Rousseau's *Social Contract* in the Philippines, whereas the works of Rousseau were openly sold in Madrid. Again, in another issue, an article appeared criticizing the kind of education the Filipinos were then receiving. It stated that the Filipinos were acquiring a pedantic education, that their minds were being filled with useless information concerning the imaginary glories of Alexander the Great, Caesar, Scipio, and the rest. The last number of this enlightened periodical bore the date May 25, 1822.

A fortnightly magazine, which was highly informative, was published in Manila in 1862 under the name *El Pasig*. The articles written in Spanish dealt with agriculture, trades, industries, and the arts. It had a column with the heading 'The Protector of the Native.'¹ This was written in Spanish, Tagalog, Ilocano, and Pangasinan.

The remarkable impetus given the publication of many newspapers in Manila was the law granting freedom of the press, which was approved by the Spanish king in November, 1820, and promulgated in the Philippines by Governor Folgueras in September, 1821. However, a censorship law was promulgated in the Philippines in 1857 and remained in force until the end of the Spanish régime. Under the provisions of this law there were censors for every

¹ *La Protectora del Indígena*.

newspaper. Among the news and articles which could not be printed were such as might harm the Catholic Church. All other printed matter must bear the approval of the archbishop or of a diocesan bishop and of the central government.

From 1821 to 1862 more than a dozen different newspapers were published in the Philippines. Though they were short-lived and were read by a small section of the population, their appearance was certainly a factor to be considered in the cultural advance of the Filipino people.

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CHAPTER III

THE EDUCATIONAL DECREE OF 1863

The year 1863 marked the beginning of a new era in the history of education in the Philippines. It was in this year that a royal decree creating a normal school for men as well as elementary schools throughout the Islands was promulgated. As already mentioned in the preceding chapter, this matter had been under study for several years by an educational commission which rendered its report in 1861.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR MEN

The royal decree ordered the establishment of a normal school for men in the City of Manila. This provision of the law fulfilled a long-felt need for a training school for teachers for the primary schools.

*Provisions
of the
Decree*

The administration of the school was intrusted to a director, assisted by four professors, and some employees. The expenses of the school were to be borne by the central government.

The students were divided into two classes; boarding and day. The boarding pupils were of two kinds; those who paid for their board, lodging, and instruction and those who did not. The latter students were holders of scholarships and were chosen by the captain-general from among provincial candidates. However, the decree provided that, as the number of paying students increased, the number of scholarships

*The
Students*

should be reduced. The holders of scholarship were required to teach for ten years. Should they fail to fulfill this obligation, they would be asked to repay to the government the amount expended for their instruction. The other boarding pupils paid 8 pesos a month for board, lodging, and instruction.¹

Day pupils lived in their own homes. Poor students were exempted from payment of tuition fees and provided with textbooks.

The general qualifications of all students were enumerated in the decree. They must be natives of the Spanish dominions, sixteen years of age, in good health, and in good standing in the town in which they lived, as certified by the parish priest. They must take an entrance examination in reading, writing, the Spanish language, and Christian doctrine.

Curriculum

The subjects of study were religion, morals, and sacred history; theory and practice of reading; theory and practice of writing; the Spanish language—analysis, composition, and orthography; mathematics—arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; geography and history of Spain; elements of physical and natural sciences; practical agriculture; rules of courtesy; music; elements of pedagogy; and practice teaching for six months.²

The duration of the course was three years; but, during the first four years of the school,

¹ By subsequent royal orders the number of boarding students was gradually reduced from 60 to 40 between 1864 and 1868, then to 30 in 1873, then to 15 in 1874, and finally suppressed entirely in 1893.

² To the course of study was added a course in drawing, in accordance with a royal order of 1880. The instructor was given a salary of 600.00 pesos a year.

the law contained a provision that students could be graduated after two years of study. This provision was for the purpose of meeting the pressing demand for teachers in the provincial primary schools that were ordered established by the same law.

The language of instruction was Spanish. The pupils were enjoined to use the same language in their daily intercourse and in their literary programs.

The law further prescribed the examinations that must be given during the academic year. There should be an examination in every course in the middle of the school year and a general examination at the end of the year. Prizes were to be awarded for excellent scholarship and for good deportment. The diploma awarded the graduates must state the grade they obtained in the examination. If the grade was excellent the graduate would be made a teacher in schools of the first class; if good or fair, he was appointed to the schools of the second class; and one who failed but passed upon re-examination, became an assistant teacher.

Examinations and Prizes

The need for teachers for the higher grades was brought to the attention of the superior government by Father Hermenegildo Jacas¹ in a memorial dated December, 1893. In response an advanced course for teachers was offered in the normal school. Teachers who graduated with a grade of excellent might study for another year, taking additional courses in pedagogy. Upon the completion of the course of study they were granted a certificate of

Graduate Course

¹ Artigas; *op. cit.*, p. 453.

teacher of superior primary instruction and were given preference in the appointment to the first-class primary schools. However, they were required to take an examination, because the positions in these first-class primary schools were filled by competitive examinations given by the general division of civil administration. The examinations were announced three months in advance. The board of examiners was composed of five members of the faculty of the normal school, who were named by the director.

The examination consisted of two parts; oral and written. The oral examination lasted one and a half hours. The candidate had to answer three questions on pedagogy and three questions on other subjects, chosen by lot. Then he was given a book and a manuscript to read aloud. Finally, he must analyze grammatically some sentences dictated to him by the examiners. The written examination lasted one hour and included the writing of a page of capital letters, a composition in Spanish at least one page long, and the solution of arithmetical problems.

The salaries of the graduates of this school were fixed by the decree of 1863, as follows:

Teachers of the first class ..	15-20 pesos per month
Teachers of the second class	12-15 pesos per month
Teachers of the third class	12 pesos per month

In a later decree (July, 1892) a higher schedule of salaries was prescribed:

	Pesos
Teachers of the higher primary school of the	
first class	40

Teachers of the higher primary school of the second class	30
Teachers of the lower primary school of the first class	22
Teachers of the lower primary school of the second class	17
Assistants	8-13

THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

According to the royal decree of December, 1863, there should be one school for boys and one school for girls for every 5,000 inhabitants in towns and in barrios with a population of at least 500. Such schools must teach the following subjects: Christian doctrine, principles of morality, sacred history; reading; writing; practical Spanish, Spanish grammar, and orthography; arithmetic, including integers, common fractions, decimals, and the metric system; geography and Spanish history; practical agriculture; rules of courtesy; music; needlework (for girls).

Curriculum

The language of instruction must be Spanish. Attendance was compulsory. Children six years of age might be admitted. A fine was imposed upon parents or guardians who did not comply with the law.

All the expenses of the school must be defrayed by the municipality.

The supervisor of the schools of a town was the parish priest. He was given ample powers, such as admonishing and choosing the teachers, determining the admission to the schools, and whether a pupil should pay or be exempt from payment of fees. In addition to the parish priest there was a provincial super-

Supervision

visor and the superior council of primary instruction to approve textbooks and fix the salaries of teachers.

Equipment

The law also prescribed the rules for the management of the schools. A schoolhouse must have one classroom, one ante-hall, and separate quarters for the teacher and his family. The classroom must be provided with one table with drawers, one chair, one blackboard, and inkwells. In the hall there must be a crucifix, and below this the picture of the chief of state must be hung. The teacher must look after the cleaning of the schoolhouse and the furniture.

The teacher must keep two record books; a book of enrollment and a daily register of attendance. Once a month the teacher should make a report of the enrollment and attendance in his school to the chief of the province.

Holidays

The school holidays are enumerated in the decree. They were, Sundays; feast days marked with two or three crosses on the calendar; All Souls' Day; from Christmas day to the day after Epiphany; Ash Wednesday; six days of Holy Week; St. Joseph's Day; saint's days and birthday anniversaries of their majesties, the king and queen, and of his royal highness the prince of Asturias; feast day of the town; and the saint's day of the superior civil governor and that of the bishop of the diocese.

*Daily
Program*

The school hours were fixed by the decree. They were from seven to ten o'clock in the morning and from half past two to five o'clock in the afternoon, except during April, May, and June, when classes must be held from seven to

eleven in the morning and no classes in the afternoon. The decree prescribed the distribution of these hours. The pupils must hear mass and recite part of the rosary in the church. At seven they should file before the teacher, who must see if they were clean. Then they would enter the hall and, kneeling before the crucifix, say their morning prayers. The roll would then be called and the pupils must practice writing until eight o'clock. From eight to nine was the time for the reading lesson; from nine to ten, for the grammar lesson. Before leaving the schoolhouse the pupils must pray once more and march to the church to take back the crucifix.

The afternoon session was to be opened with a prayer followed by roll call; then arithmetic lessons until 3:30, Christian doctrine and ethics until 4:30; and rules of deportment or geography, history, and agriculture until 5:00 o'clock. The pupils then should go to church again for prayers.

Sunday afternoon was to be devoted to the review of the Christian doctrine, ethics, sacred history, and music.

Rewards and punishments were specified in the decree. The rewards consisted of cards bearing the word "merit" which would serve as an excuse for minor misdemeanors, and congratulatory letters to parents. Four kinds of punishment were indicated; namely, kneeling or standing, additional reading or writing, remaining at school studying or writing, and other mild penalty at the discretion of the priest. Excellence in examinations was to be

*Rewards
and Punish-
ments*

rewarded by such objects as books of devotion, thimbles, scissors, and religious prints.

Conclusion

The educational decree of 1863 thus organized the various educational activities of the religious orders. By creating a normal school for men, a start was made in providing the elementary schools with trained teachers. By prescribing a course of study for the primary grades a certain kind of uniformity and order was achieved in elementary education. The expenses of these schools were to be defrayed from public funds. The decree thus recognized the modern principle that education is a duty of the state.

Prior to 1863, the Spanish government was content to issue royal orders enjoining the missionaries to educate the Filipinos, but giving no tangible aid to enable the former to carry out such a huge task. Though the religious orders were still to predominate in educational matters, they were henceforth to receive financial aid from the government.

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CHAPTER IV

THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR MEN, 1865-1896

The normal school for men, as provided in the royal decree of December, 1863, was formally opened in January, 1865. Its administration was intrusted to the Jesuit fathers, who had returned to the Philippines in 1859, in accordance with the royal decree of 1852.¹ Each of the five Jesuit professors received 800 pesos a year; each of the three assistants, 400 pesos a year; and the help, 600 pesos; and the amount of 1,000 pesos was assigned for the purchase of materials and equipment.

*Opening of
the Normal
School*

For fifteen years the normal school occupied a private house in the Walled City. When this building was destroyed by an earthquake, in 1880, the school was moved to a house in the district of Santa Ana. Later, in 1886, it was transferred to the buildings in Ermita on Padre Faura Street.

The training of the prospective teachers was improved by the establishment of a primary school in connection with the normal school, which was authorized by a decree of the superior civil government in March, 1866. The elementary school served as the training department in which the student teachers were required to practice teaching for six months.

*The
Training
Depart-
ment*

The textbooks used in the normal school were as follows:

Textbooks

¹ Blair and Robertson; *op. cit.*, Vol. 52, p. 124.

FIRST YEAR

Mazo: Christian Doctrine Explained (Part I).

Yeves: Elements of Sacred History (Second Grade).

Torre, P. de la: Spanish Grammar (Analogy and Orthography).

Regulez: Theory and Practice of Reading.

Regulez: Theory and Practice of Writing.

Fernandez and Cardin: Arithmetic.

Yeves and P. Baranera: Principles of General Geography and Philippine Geography.

Henry and Peyromet: Drawing.

SECOND YEAR

Mazo: Catechism Explained (Parts II and III).

Yeves: Sacred History (Third Grade).

Yeves: History of Spain.

Regulez: Theory and Practice of Reading.

Regulez: Theory and Practice of Writing.

Fernandez and Cardin: Arithmetic.

Nonell: Spanish Grammar.

Henry and Thenot: Drawing.

THIRD YEAR

Mazo: Catechism Explained (Part IV).

Nonell: Spanish Grammar.

Fernandez: Geometry.

Lectures by the Professor: Surveying.

Murgadas: Pedagogy.

Lectures by the Professor: Agriculture.

Henry and Thenot: Drawing.

When the normal school was elevated to the rank of superior normal school, the following textbooks were prescribed for the advanced courses:

Carderera: Advanced Pedagogy.

Lectures by the Professor: School Laws.

Schouppe: Religion and Morals.

Baste y Baco: Universal History.

Fernandez and Cardin: Algebra.

Carderera: Commerce and Industry.

Felin: Common Natural Phenomena.

Between the years 1865 and 1896 the normal school for men graduated a total of 2,137 teachers. The following table shows the number of graduates for the different years: ¹

*The
Graduates*

TABLE 1
Number of Graduates of the Normal School for Men

Years	Teachers	Assistant Teachers
1865-1869	216	2
1869-1874	291	12
1874-1879	474	67
1879-1884	218	26
1884-1889	238	23
1889-1894	281	53
1894-1896	95	141
Total	1,813	324

One of the general complaints of the graduates of the normal school was the pitiful salary they received. Heeding this complaint the governor-general, Eulogio Despujol, issued an order on July 29th, 1892, increasing the appropriation for salaries of teachers in the public schools from 262,978 pesos to 455,976 pesos. In view of this increase, the teachers of the different grades received the following salaries per month: ²

*Salaries of
the
Graduates*

Teachers of the primary school of the first class ³	P40
Teachers of the primary school of the second class ⁴	30
Teachers of the <i>ascenso</i> class	22
Teacher of the <i>entrada</i> class	17

¹ *Boletín Oficial del Magisterio Filipino*, May, 1, 1897, p. 74.

² *La Ilustración Filipina*, August 7, 1892, p. 294.

³ *Maestros de término de 1.a Clase.*

⁴ *Maestros de ascenso.*

Assistant teacher of the first class	13
Assistant teacher of the second class . .	8
Temporary teacher	12

The increase in the salaries of teachers helped to dignify the teaching profession. This reform was highly commended by the contemporary Manila newspapers, such as *El Diario de Manila*, *El Eco de Filipinas*, *La Ilustración Filipina*, and *La Voz Española*, which took occasion to point out the importance of education in the advancement of the whole country.

In order to stimulate further the teaching profession General Despujol, in August, 1892, issued another order giving a bonus to teachers who had served a number of years, beginning with the year 1893. Teachers of both sexes who had served twenty-five years as permanent teachers of the first-class primary school would be given an annual bonus of 36 pesos at the end of each December; teachers of the category of *ascenso*, or second class, who had served twenty-five years would receive 25 pesos annually; and teachers of the *entrada* category, or third class, would receive 18 pesos. Teachers of the first class who had served fifteen years on a permanent basis would receive 18 pesos annual bonus; and teachers of the *entrada* category, or third class, 12 pesos.

The governor-general ordered the general division of civil administration to keep the individual records of service of teachers, for the purpose of carrying out this decree.¹

¹ *La Ilustración Filipina*, August 21, 1892, unnumbered page.

However, the government was slow in paying the salaries of teachers. In 1892, the total amount that the government owed the teachers was 7,763,075.44 pesos. This figure was published by the *Diario de Manila*, which called the attention of the governor-general to the matter.¹ The reason for this anomaly was usually the delay on the part of the minister of the colonies in Spain to act on the yearly appropriations for these Islands. The highly centralized system of the Spanish colonial government required the approval of the home ministry before funds could become available in the colonies. This policy of the mother country hindered the progress of the colonies. Complaints against this centralization were voiced at the time in the press.

The appointment of all public-school teachers was made by the governor-general. The newspapers published notices of vacancies as well as the name of newly appointed teachers and of those who had resigned.

*Appoint-
ment of
Teachers*

Examination of teachers for promotion was conducted in the provincial capitals by commissions whose members received their appointment from the governor-general.

The tenure of office of public-school teachers was insecure. Refusal to go to church, disloyalty to Spain, or the giving of financial aid to revolutionists was sufficient to cause the dismissal of teachers. Artemio Ricarte, who was a teacher in the municipal school of San Francisco de Malabon, was dismissed for disloyalty to Spain in 1896. Another teacher in

*Tenure of
Office*

¹ *La Ilustración Filipina*, October 21, 1892, p. 0.

the public school of Vigan, Fernando Ferrer, was separated from the service for the same reason. Lucio Rivera, assistant teacher in the public school for boys in Pagsanhan, was also dismissed for giving aid to the revolutionists in 1896.¹

*Privileges
of
Teachers*

The teachers in the government schools enjoyed certain privileges, such as exemption from taxation and the rank of *principales* in the town. Teachers of merit were awarded distinctions by the government. One of the first graduates of the normal school, Epifanio Lopez del Castillo y Arevalo of Quiapo, Manila, was decorated with the cross of the Royal Order of Isabella the Catholic for meritorious service.²

*The Academy of Ped-
agogy*

The graduates of the normal school for men formed an association in 1894, upon the initiative of the director. The approval of the governor-general was secured on February 23, 1894, and the inauguration of the association was held on October 1, 1894. It was named the Academy of Pedagogy. The first president was Father Isidoro de la Torre, a professor in the normal school; the vice-president was Florencio L. Gonzales, who was the director of Inmaculada Concepción College, a private school; and the secretary was Tomás Tirona, a member of the senior class. Catalino Sevilla, who was head of the Binondo municipal school, and Vicente Avelino of the training school of the normal school were chosen ad-

¹ *Boletín Oficial del Magisterio Filipino*, December 1, 1896, p. 226.

² *La Ilustración Filipina* of May 7, 1892, p. 198.

visers of the academy. Tomás Maddela was named librarian, and Eliseo Tirona, director of the pedagogical museum. The building of a library and pedagogical museum was one of the aims of the academy. In the museum were exhibited objects of pedagogical interest, such as a rubber human ear, eye, heart, hand, and thorax, carpenter's tools, reading posters, arithmetical tables, a box of the letters of the alphabet, and the like.

The academy aimed to promote the *esprit de corps* among teachers and to impress upon them the importance and dignity of their calling. It held fortnightly meetings for the purpose of discussing educational questions and reading papers by the members. It offered prizes for the best papers. It published an organ called *Boletín Oficial del Magisterio Filipino* for the diffusion of pedagogical information. This periodical usually contained notices of teaching opportunities and vacancies, foreign educational news, assignment of teachers, disciplinary orders to teachers, results of teacher's examinations, and conferences on pedagogical topics.

Teachers of the first, second, and third classes were eligible for membership. In its first month, it had sixty-seven members.

The academy declared itself against the Revolution of 1896. It condemned teachers who joined or sympathized with the revolution.¹

Conclusion

The establishment of the normal school during the Spanish régime made teaching the no-

¹ *Boletín Oficial del Magisterio Filipino*, February 1, 1897, pp. 1, 2.

ble profession that it is considered to-day in the Philippines. The graduates of the school, wherever they served, were highly respected and honored citizens. The countless contemporary articles portraying the miserable life of public-school teachers were not meant to cast discredit upon the teachers themselves, but rather to call attention to the inadequacy of their compensation and material equipment. The salutary influence which was exerted by these teachers was recognized and felt by their contemporaries. In the appendix to this book is a list of some Filipino teachers, with fragments of their biographies, who were highly esteemed by their contemporaries for their service to the community.

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CHAPTER V

THE NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR WOMEN, 1871-1896

When primary schools for girls were established by the royal decree of 1863, the need for women teachers was felt. The regulation for primary schools required that women teachers should hold certificates in order that they might be appointed permanently. Since there was no normal school for women as yet, the certificates were issued by the superior civil governor upon recommendation of the examining board, which was composed of the director of the men's normal school, a member of the superior board of primary instruction, and a member of the *Ayuntamiento*. The candidate for the teacher's certificate must take an examination before this board of examiners on the subjects taught in the primary schools for girls.

It was the convent schools, already mentioned elsewhere, that undertook to prepare the candidates for this examination. They were the Municipal School, under the care of the sisters of charity and maintained by the City of Manila, the *Colegio de Sta. Catalina*, the *Colegio de Sta. Rosa*, and the *Colegio de la Concordia*.

After finishing the higher courses in these institutions, those who aspired to the teacher's certificate had to stay two years longer, during

which they studied some principles of pedagogy and practiced teaching.¹

This two-year normal course was deficient, but it was better than nothing at all. The practice teaching alluded to was simply the teaching given by the pupils of the higher class to the less-advanced pupils, without any supervision, but merely to help the regular teacher in charge of the class, as was the practice in every school.

Until 1872 only these normal courses were offered to prospective teachers. In France the same situation prevailed. The normal courses given in the ordinary schools preceded the regular normal school. Paris did not have a regular school either for boys or for girls until 1872.² Comparatively speaking, then, as far as academic training was concerned, the women in the Philippines were not far behind. This could be explained by the fact that the educational movements in the Philippines merely followed those in continental Europe. Such were the spiritual ties that existed between the Philippines and Europe that the forces which stirred European life were bound to be felt in this country as well.

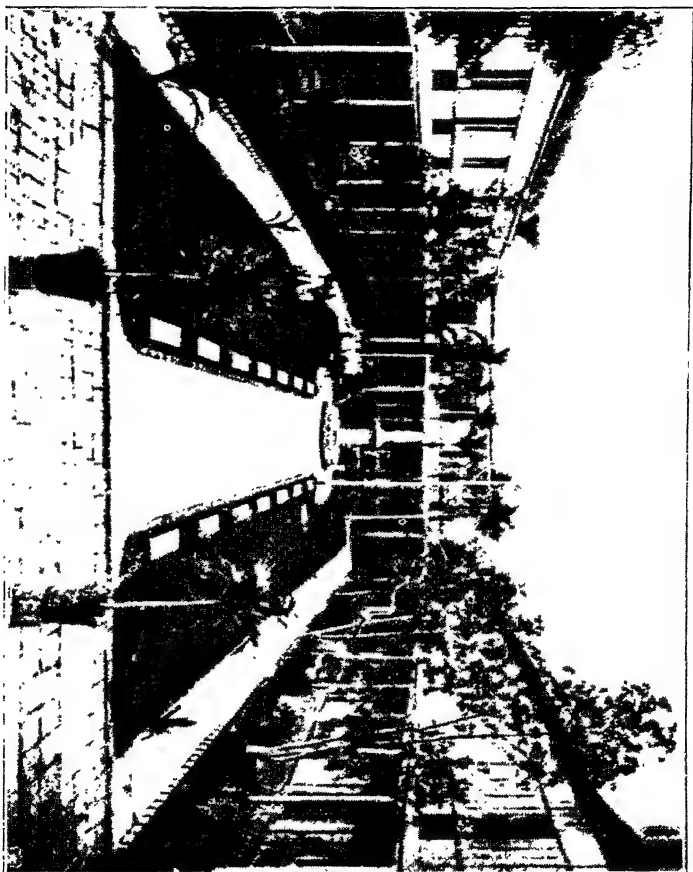
*Establish-
ment*

The first normal school for women was established in the Municipal School of Manila, by virtue of a decree of the superior civil government dated November 30, 1871.³ In the fol-

¹ *Breve Reseña Histórica de la Labor Realizada en estas Islas de la doble familia de San Vicente de Paul*, Manila, 1912, p. 210.

² Farrington; *Public Primary School System of France*, pp. 153, 154.

³ Rodríguez Berriz; *Diccionario de la Administración de Filipinas*, 1888, Vol. III, pp. 286-296.



COLEGIO DE LA INMACULADA CONCEPCION (CONCORDIA), FOUNDED BY
MARGARITA DE AYALA IN 1868

lowing year a royal decree was issued creating the *Escuela Normal de Maestras de Primera Enseñanza de Nueva Cáceres* (Normal School for Women Teachers of Primary Instruction of Nueva Cáceres). It was opened in 1875, the year in which the superior civil government issued the regulations for its internal administration. This school was for the natives of the diocese of Nueva Cáceres only.

Lastly, a higher normal school for women was created by a royal decree of March 11, 1892, in the City of Manila. The Augustinian nuns of the Assumption of the Royal School of Sta. Isabel, Madrid, well known for their educational work, were put in charge of this school. It was declared the official normal school in which all aspirants for the teacher's certificate must take examination.

*Superior
Normal
School
for
Women*

The entrance requirements of the Superior Normal School for Women Teachers were expressed in the following articles of its regulations:

Art. 65. In order to enter the Superior Normal School for Women Teachers, one must pass an examination in Christian doctrine and sacred history, Castilian grammar, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history of Spain and the Philippines, hygiene, and needle-work.

Art. 66. The examination shall be in three forms, as follows:

I. WRITTEN EXERCISE

The writing of a letter or essay upon a theme drawn from the Christian doctrine and sacred history, hygiene, or the history of Spain and the Philippines.

Solution of an arithmetical problem.

Execution of a simple geometrical drawing.

II. ORAL EXERCISE

Explanatory reading of a complete sentence.

Grammatical analysis of a sentence.

Answer to a question in geography, as well as to one in each of the following subjects: Christian doctrine, sacred history, hygiene, and history of Spain or the Philippines. The topic already used for the written exercise shall be excluded from the oral exercise.

III. PRACTICAL EXERCISE

Execution of some kind of needlework in the presence of the examining tribunal.

Art. 68. In order to be admitted to matriculation, one must have passed the age of fourteen years; the application for admission must be made to the directress of the school, accompanied by the baptismal certificate of the applicant, by a certificate of good conduct issued by the parish priest of her town, a medical certificate stating that she does not suffer from any contagious disease or physical defect which will incapacitate her for the duties of teaching, the authorization of her father, tutor, guardian, or husband (if the candidate should be married), and the corresponding personal cedula.

The other two normal schools—namely, the one established in the Municipal School and the other in the Colegio de Sta. Isabel at Nueva Cáceres—made practically the same entrance requirements as did the superior normal school.

Pupils

The normal school for women teachers established in the Municipal School of Manila and the normal school at Nueva Cáceres admitted boarding and day pupils, but the Superior Normal School for Women Teachers taught day pupils only.

Some of the students were holders of scholarships granted by the provinces and municipalities. They were under obligation to teach for ten years after graduation or return

the money to the province or town that supported them.

The normal school at Nueva Cáceres offered a three-year course leading to the teacher's certificate of primary instruction. In the Municipal School there were two normal courses: The first was a two-year course, which granted the certificate of teacher of primary instruction; and the other was a three-year course, or one year after the two-year course, leading to the certificate of teacher of superior instruction. However, this certificate was equivalent only to the certificate of teacher of primary instruction given by the superior normal school. The graduates could obtain the higher certificate by taking the corresponding examination in the superior normal school instead of the examination given by the commission authorized to grant such certificates before the superior normal school was created.

Courses of Study

The Superior Normal School was higher than the preceding ones. Its courses were divided into a three-year course, leading to the certificate of teacher of primary instruction, and a four-year course, or one year after the three-year course, leading to the certificate of teacher of superior instruction.

The superior normal course for women and that for men were practically the same.

The certificates were of two grades; elementary and superior. They bore the word *sobresaliente* (excellent) or *aprobada* (passed) obtained by the holders at the *reválida* examination (comprehensive examination for a degree). Those who obtained a mark of excellent were

The Certificates

Curriculum

qualified to take charge of *ascenso* schools; and those who obtained a mark of *aprobada* were to administer *entrada* schools.

In order to give an idea of the curriculum of the normal schools for women we shall quote that of the Superior Normal School, in as much as this was the official one and the other two were similar to it in many respects.

Three-Year Course for the Certificate of Teacher of Primary Instruction

First and Second Years:

Religion and ethics; Castilian grammar; expressive reading; arithmetic; calligraphy; general geography and the geography of Spain and the Philippines, history of Spain and the Philippines; hygiene and domestic economy; needlework; geometry; gymnastics.

Third Year, enlargement of the studies of the first and second years:

Pedagogy; natural sciences; music and singing; practice in teaching.

Four-Year Course, for the Certificate of Teacher of Superior Instruction; enlargement of the studies of the three-year course:

Principles of literature; designing with application to needlework; optional subjects; elementary principles of law and its application; French, English; pedagogy for the deaf and the blind; fine arts.

This curriculum, with the exception of the course in needlework, was identical with that of the men's higher normal school. In the men's superior normal school, besides the subjects in the curriculum cited, courses in agriculture, surveying, and lineal and figure drawing were offered.

Comparing this curriculum with that of the girls' lower normal school in France, a marked similarity between the two curricula will be

noted. The following was the French curriculum:¹

First Year:

(a) Literary.

Psychology, morals, pedagogy; French language and literature; history and civic instruction; geography, writing; modern language—Spanish, German, English, or Italian.

(b) Scientific.

Mathematics—arithmetic and some notions of geometry; natural science and hygiene; drawing; sewing and dressmaking; housekeeping and gardening; gymnastics; singing and music.

Second Year:

Enlargement of studies of the first year.

Third Year:

Enlargement of studies of the second year, except writing; domestic economy.

It will be noticed that the professional subjects were taught in all three years, whereas in the Philippine normal school for women they were placed in the last year.

A step toward modern methods of instruction was taken by the regulations for the normal schools. The regulations for the Superior Normal School prescribed the manner of classroom teaching as follows:

*Methods of
Instruction*

Every lesson given to the pupils of the normal school shall consist of an explanation by the teacher, and of intelligent recitation and practical application by the scholars.

A fixed daily program must be followed.

Five days before beginning lessons, a schedule shall be affixed in that place in the edifice assigned for announcements, indicating the studies taught in the

¹ Farrington; *Public Primary School System of France*, p. 192.

school, the instructresses in charge of them, the prescribed textbooks, and the rooms, days, and hours in which the lessons are to be given.¹

A similar regulation was followed by the other normal schools.

*Practice
Teaching*

Each normal school had a primary school located in its own building, in which the students practiced teaching. The primary school was divided into two sections; namely, elementary and superior. It was under the charge of a teacher with the title of regent, who held a superior certificate, and an assistant with an elementary certificate. These training schools were open to all the girls of the neighborhood. The training school of the Superior Normal School was maintained by the municipality of Manila.

The student teachers were required to practice teaching for at least four months under the guidance of the regent.

*Examina-
tions*

There were two kinds of examination; the yearly examination at the completion of each course and the *reválida*, or comprehensive, examination. The yearly examinations at the completion of every course were of two kinds; namely, ordinary and special. The ordinary examination was held from the first to the thirtieth of April. Those who failed in this examination, or who failed to take it, or who desired to improve their grade could take the special examination.

For any one of these examinations a fee was charged. The subjects of instruction were

¹ Article 52 of the Regulations for the Superior Normal School for Women.

divided into groups and a fee of 2.50 pesos was paid for each group.

The boards of examiners were each formed by the instructors of the subject of the examination, two other instructors, and others whom the directress might designate.

The examination questions were chosen by lot. Answers were graded as excellent, notable, good, passed, or failed.

Those who desired to get a teacher's certificate, whether of elementary or of superior grade, must undergo an examination covering all the prescribed subjects of the course. This was called the *reválida* examination. In order to be admitted to it the presentation of a certificate showing that the candidate had completed the prescribed course of study and the payment of 6 pesos as fee were required.

The examination consisted of four exercises; namely, one written, one oral, and two practical. The written exercise for candidates for the elementary teacher's certificate consisted in the writing of a capital alphabet and a small alphabet on ruled paper supplied to them, writing from dictation of one or more sentences, solving three arithmetical problems, and writing an essay on some pedagogical topic.

The written exercise for candidates for the superior certificate consisted in the solution of three arithmetical problems and the writing of an essay on a pedagogical topic, all chosen by lot. The time allowed for this exercise for the superior certificate was five hours, and for the elementary certificate, four hours.

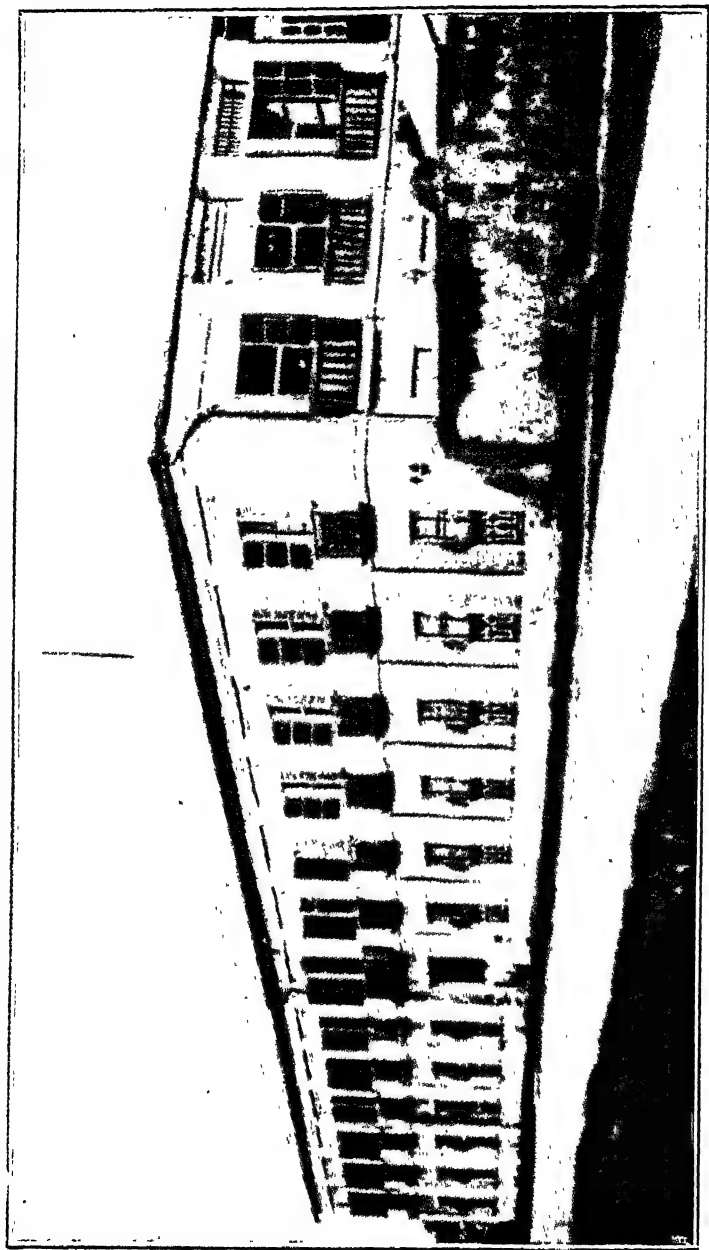
The oral part of the examination for the elementary certificate consisted in answering nine questions on three branches of study chosen by lot; for the superior certificate, the same number of questions, taken from all the subjects of the four-year course and chosen by lot.

After the written and oral exercises, the two practical examinations in needlework and in practice teaching followed. The latter comprised, for the elementary a ten-minute, and for the superior a fifteen-minute, explanation of a subject, chosen by lot, on the education of girls.

Admission to the second, third, and fourth exercises was conditioned on the successful passage of the preceding examinations. After each exercise the board decided upon the mark to be given the candidate. The grades were excellent, passed, and conditioned. Those who were conditioned could take another examination after two months had elapsed since they had been conditioned. These examinations were generally not difficult.

Prizes

Excellent scholarship and deportment were liberally rewarded in a public ceremony at the end of each school year. The regulations for the normal school devoted several articles on the awarding of prizes, to encourage scholarship. The rewards were "matriculation of honor," by which the holder was exempted from the payment of fees for one year, free academic fees, books, medals, and the like. To obtain these prizes competitive exercises were



COLEGIO DE SANTA ISABEL DE NUEVA CACERES, FOUNDED IN 1868

held, to which only those of good scholarship and deportment were admitted.

The teachers of the normal school at Nueva Cáceres and in the Municipal School were Spanish sisters of charity who had been trained in Spain. The Superior Normal School was placed under the Augustinian nuns of the Assumption. Like the sisters of charity, the congregation of the Augustinian nuns was founded in France in 1839. It was devoted to the teaching of young girls, and combined a thorough secular training with moral and religious education. It educated children of prominent families in France and in other countries, wherever the congregation had branches. The habit of the nuns was violet with a violet belt, white veil, and a white cross on the breast.¹

*The
Teaching
Staff*

The fame of the Assumption nuns as teachers was widespread and it had preceded them in the Philippines. The nuns who came to the Philippines were sent by the Spanish government to organize the Superior Normal School for Women. They came at the expense of the Philippine government. They received their appointment from the minister of colonies.

With the exception of the professor of ethics and religion, the entire teaching staff of the Superior Normal School was composed of these nuns, five of whom were regular instructors, one was assistant in the department of literature, one assistant in the science department, one music teacher, and one gymnastic teacher.

¹ F. M. Rudge; *Sisters of the Assumption*, in the *Catholic Encyclopedia*, Vol. II, p. 6.

The salaries of members of the personnel were as follows:

	<i>Pesos</i>
Instructor-directress, annual salary	1,000.00
Five regular instructors, 700 pesos each ..	3,500.00
One instructor of music and singing, annual salary	475.00
One instructor of room gymnastics	400.00
Two assistant instructors (one for the section of literature) with an annual salary of 475 pesos each	950.00
One assistant instructor of religion and ethics, who was also the chaplain, annual salary	475.00
One secretary, annual salary	250.00
One clerk, annual salary	200.00
One porter, annual salary	200.00
Three sewing women at 150 pesos each ...	450.00

The regulations enumerated the duties of each of these officers, which were merely the duties inherent in their offices.

*Expenses of
the Normal
Schools*

The expenses of the Superior Normal School were defrayed by the civil government. The sums assigned in the royal decree creating it were 7,900 pesos for the teaching force and management, and 4,500 pesos for equipment. The support of the annexed training school, as has been mentioned elsewhere, came from the municipality of Manila.

The other two normal schools were supported by the matriculation fees of their pupils and their payments for board.

*Cost to
Pupils*

When a pupil entered the Superior Normal School, she had to obtain from the secretary of the institution the so-called cedula of inscription, or a certificate stating that the pupil's name had been placed in the matricula-

tion book and that she had paid 1.25 pesos therefor. Then she had to pay matriculation fees in two instalments, amounting to 7.50 pesos. At the end of the school term, in order to be admitted to the examination, she had to pay a fee of 2.50 pesos for each group of studies. The *reválida* examination fee was 6 pesos. For the superior certificate 40 pesos had to be paid, besides 2 pesos for the expense of issuing the document. The elementary certificate cost 35 pesos.

In the normal school at Nueva Cáceres, boarding pupils paid 6 pesos a month; in the Municipal School, the monthly board was 9 pesos and the matriculation fee 20 pesetas (a peseta was worth about 39 centavos).

The students purchased the books and other materials needed in school work.

The normal school for women teachers established in the Municipal School of Manila utilized the materials of this school for its purposes. The building is to-day occupied by the Araullo High School of the City of Manila.

*Buildings
and Equip-
ment*

The normal school for women teachers of primary instruction in Nueva Cáceres was located in the Colegio de Sta. Isabel de Nueva Cáceres.

The Superior Normal School for Women Teachers was housed in a beautiful, spacious building on Calle Herran, Manila, which had been the Hospital de Santiago. The Assumption nuns are still occupying the building.

Regarding equipment, the regulations for the superior normal school included the following:

A blackboard or oilskin, placed near the chair of the instructor;

An image of Jesus Christ and a picture of his majesty the king in each classroom;

Globes, maps, and other objects required for the teaching of geography;

Pictures which would facilitate the teaching of history;

A physics cabinet with the apparatus and instruments indispensable for teaching this subject profitably;

A classified mineralogical collection;

A zoological collection, or plates representing the principal species;

A botanical garden and its herbarium systematically arranged;

A collection of objects and instruments deemed necessary for teaching.

*School
Terms and
Vacation*

The normal schools opened in June and closed in March. The holidays observed during the school year were the same as those enumerated in the royal decree of December 20, 1863.

*Salaries of
Graduates*

The salaries of women teachers in the public schools were lower than those of men teachers. This difference in salary was even then regarded as inequitable, in as much as the training, work, and responsibility of both men and women teachers were essentially the same. When, in 1892, the governor-general increased the salary of public-school teachers, the need of equalizing the salaries of men and women



THE BUILDING OF THE ESCUELA MUNICIPAL DE MANTLA, NOW OCCUPIED
BY THE ARAULLO HIGH SCHOOL

teachers was voiced in the local press.¹ Besides their regular salaries, the teachers, of course, received the monthly fee paid by the well-to-do pupils, ranging from 1 to 2 pesos a pupil. Then, too, gifts in kind were generally given to the teachers by the parents of their pupils.

When the Superior Normal School began to send out its graduates, teaching came to be considered a dignified profession for women. Graduation from the normal school was deemed a social distinction. The woman teacher of a town was addressed by both the adult and the young as *Máestra* So-and-So. She was looked upon as the best-educated woman in the community.

*Teaching, a
Profession*

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¹ *La Ilustración Filipina*, August 21, 1892, p. 307.

94 EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

Rodriguez Berriz, Miguel: *Diccionario de la Administración de Filipinas*, 1887-1895. Vols. I, II, III, VI contain the texts of royal decrees and circulars of the superior civil government regarding education. 15 vols.

Speech read at the opening of the academic year, 1895-1896, at the Superior Normal School for Women, by an Assumption nun, a professor at the school.

CHAPTER VI

THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1863-1896

The history of public elementary schools during the period from 1863 to 1896 shows that the educational law of 1863 was never put into full operation. Many of its provisions remained only on paper.

One of the provisions of the law which was flagrantly ignored was the use of the Spanish language for instruction in all the public schools. Instead, the local dialects continued to be used in the primary schools throughout the Islands. However, the superior government could not in fairness be accused of defying the educational decree, for it issued an order in October, 1867, unmistakably for the purpose of stimulating the study of the Spanish language. According to the order those who did not, fifteen years after 1867, know how to read, write, and speak Spanish could not belong to the *principalia* class, or be appointed as *gobernadorcillo* or *teniente de justicia*; only those who, thirty years after the establishment of a school in any town, could read, speak, and write Spanish would be exempt from rendering personal service; beginning with December 20th, 1868, no one who could not use the Spanish language would be appointed to any position in the government. The tenor of this order clearly indicated the desire of the civil government to encourage the Filipinos to use the

*Language
of Instruc-
tion*

Spanish language. However, the policy of the civil government was opposed by the friars who controlled the parishes and who, as inspectors of local schools, wielded directly considerable power. The cause of the prevalent antipathy against the friars was chiefly their hostility to the enlightenment of the Filipinos in general. Memorials were sent to the governor-general protesting against the attitude of individual friars toward education.¹

*Si Tandang
Basio
Macunat*

The anti-friar feeling was greatly heightened in 1885, when a pamphlet written in Tagalog and entitled *Si Tandang Basio Macunat* appeared. Its author was found to be Fray Miguel Lucio Bustamante, a Franciscan friar. So lamentable was the impression created by this pamphlet in the public mind that the friar authorities withdrew it from circulation. The content of this pamphlet was really an exposition of the author's views on the teaching of Spanish and on education in general. It ridiculed the efforts of the Filipinos to acquire the same education as that possessed by the Spaniards, and stated that all a Filipino needed to enable him to go to heaven was to learn how to pray, to plow, and to be obedient to his superiors, especially to the parish priests. The worst character portrayed in the story was a young man, an *estudiante* (student), who was sent to Manila by his ambitious father.

¹ A pamphlet belonging to the Epifanio de los Santos collection petitions the Spanish government to expel the friars from the Philippines. The petitions were drawn up between February and March, 1888, by Filipino business and professional men of Manila.

Instead of studying, the young man led a questionable life. When he returned to his native town he disdained work and lived in idleness and vice, thus bringing disgrace to his whole family. The author's conclusion was that to teach the *indio* Spanish and give him a little education was fatal. The *indio* was destined to tend carabaos, and not to live like Spaniards.

The friar opposition, however, was not the only explanation for the smallness of the number of Filipinos who could speak or write Spanish at the end of the Spanish era. Primary instruction was carried on indifferently. The normal schools did not graduate a sufficient number of teachers. The rigidity of school discipline turned away students. Reading matter in Spanish was scarce. Bearing these facts in mind, one need not be surprised that, in spite of the three centuries of Spanish rule, only comparatively few Filipinos were conversant with the language of the conquerors.

By an order of the superior government of December 14, 1889, the attendance at school of all children from the age of six to twelve years was made compulsory; but the order did not provide for the means of enforcing it. No truant officers were appointed; hence, it was just another dead letter. The exact number of students that attended the public schools for any given period could not be ascertained. The figures regarding the school population were for the most part unreliable. Barrantes, writing at about 1869, ventured to assert that of 5,000,000 inhabitants of the Islands, 150,000

Enrollment

were in schools.¹ In 1877, according to the tourist guide published in that year by Ramon Gonzalez Fernandez, there were 1,016 schools for boys and 592 for girls, supported by the government, throughout the Philippines. The attendance in the boys' schools was 98,761, and in the girls', 78,352.²

During the Spanish period the taking of the school census was indifferently and haltingly done. One of the obstacles in the way was popular ignorance. The censors reported various amusing experiences in the course of their work. Upon the news of their arrival in a town, wild rumors would spread. One of these was that the censors had come to look for some beautiful girls to be sent to the king of Spain who was sick.

According to the Official Guide of the Philippines (*Guía Oficial de Filipinas*) for 1898, there was a total of 2,167 primary schools in the Islands at the end of 1897, attended by approximately 200,000 boys and girls.

*Classifica-
tion of
Schools*

According to Spanish legislation, primary schools were of three classes; *entrada*, *ascenso*, and *término*. Boys' schools in towns of at least 5,000 inhabitants were of the *entrada* class; in towns of 10,000 inhabitants, *ascenso*; in towns of 20,000 inhabitants, *término* of the second class; and in the City of Manila, *término* of the first class. Girls' schools followed the same classification, except that the girls'

¹ Barrantes; *op. cit.*, p. 146.

² Ramon Gonzalez Fernandez y Federico Moreno Jerez; *Manual del Viajero en Filipinas*, 1877, 2d edition.

término schools were not divided into first and second classes. Teachers were likewise classified in accordance with the rank of the schools in which they taught.

All primary schools, whether of the *entrada*, the *ascenso*, or the *término* rank, were considered of the first class; the incomplete primary schools in the barrios of about 500 inhabitants were of the second class; and primary schools in the smaller barrios were rated as of the third class. Barrio schools were few, and public-spirited citizens, especially in the 80's and 90's, clamored for the establishment of such schools, arguing that the great distance between the barrios and the towns prevented children from going to school. Nevertheless, few barrio schools were created.

The supervision of the system of public education was intrusted to a body known as the Superior Council of Primary Instruction, presided over by the governor-general. By a subsequent order of the ministry of colonies this body was reorganized and its name changed to the Superior Board of Public Instruction. This board was composed of the diocesan prelate, six or seven other men, and the director of the men's normal school as *ex-officio* member. Under this body were provincial boards, one for each province, whose members were the bishop of the diocese or the parish priest of the capital, the chief executive (*alcalde mayor*) of the province, and the administrator of the finances. In each municipality supervision was in the hands of the parish priest.

*Supervi-
sion*

The municipal supervisor, the parish priest, exercised large powers. He was virtually the educational arbiter. He had the power to enforce the school laws, to recommend the appointment or suspension of teachers, to visit the schools at any time, and to determine whether a pupil should pay for tuition or not. On account of their authority, the parish priests could be held mainly responsible for the success or failure of elementary education in the Philippines. The instruction in the primary schools depended upon the attitude of the parish priests. If the parish priest was opposed to the teaching of Spanish, he usually used his authority to discourage it and to penalize the teacher that dared to oppose him. For this reason, the position of parish priest was one of influence and power in a municipality. No wonder that it was much coveted by the regular clergy.

In addition to these bodies, there was another board sitting in Manila, whose duty was to purchase and distribute materials, prizes, and equipment for the public elementary schools.¹ The board was created in 1891 for the purpose of centralizing this activity of the government. Prior to 1891, teachers were given an allowance of 1 peso for each pupil with which to purchase writing materials. This arrangement was altered in 1880, when the superior government ordered the provincial governments to set aside an amount equivalent to one-fourth of

¹ *Junta Administradora del Material de Enseñanza* was the name of the board.

the teachers' salaries for the purchase of school supplies. The superior government later revoked the order and created the central board. Its members were the sub-director of the Council of Civil Administration as chairman, the chief of the Bureau of Public Instruction as secretary, two teachers of primary instruction as accountants, and two parents who were Manila residents as members.¹ This board was the butt of criticism in the press because of its slowness in purchasing and distributing supplies. It was pointed out that the old arrangement, which allowed the teachers to buy directly all the supplies they actually needed, was the better one.²

It was the intention of the Philippine government to erect schoolhouses in every town; but, like many other good intentions of the government, this was not realized except in a few cases. In the majority of towns the schoolhouse was rented, and usually it was the teacher's private residence. In San José, Antique Province, in about 1881, the townspeople built a schoolhouse of stone and galvanized iron.

*School
Buildings*

Observers were agreed that the schoolhouses were inadequate. Generally, there was only one room for students of all grades, the rest of the house being occupied by the teacher's family. A small table, a chair, a crucifix, and crude benches for the students were the school equipment.

¹ Grifol y Aliaga; *op. cit.*, pp. 261, 262.

² *La Ilustración Filipina*, August 21, 1892, p. 307.

Such uninviting schoolrooms were another blot on the system of public education. In spite of the advanced pedagogical theories already known in our country then, the public schools remained quite behind and unaffected.

Curriculum

The educational decree of 1863 prescribed the subjects which comprised primary instruction. It was not followed in all the primary schools, even of the first class. The subjects commonly taught were the Christian doctrine and prayers, and the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The most important subject was the Christian doctrine and prayers. The emphasis on the teaching of this subject was due to the fact that the objective of elementary instruction was to produce docile and God-fearing men and women who would follow blindly the counsels of their parish priests and confessors. Reading was included in the curriculum, to enable the Filipinos to read devotional books. Writing was taught in order to train clerks for the parish priest. The most able penmen were chosen to become clerks at the convent. As regards arithmetic, only the barest rudiments of this study were considered necessary for the Filipinos.

Such was the actual content of public elementary instruction. One could hardly blame the critics of the time who pointed out the emptiness and narrowness of public elementary education. In the next chapter is an analysis of some of the textbooks used in the primary schools.

The method of teaching was of the most un-pedagogical kind. Teachers made no effort to explain the subject matter, but simply required the pupils to read and memorize. Much value was thus placed upon memory power, since comprehension of the meaning of the text was not demanded. The result was the turning out of boys and girls who could read, but whose minds remained undeveloped. We certainly cannot boast of this kind of literacy.

To learn reading, beginners were given a tiny booklet commonly called *cartilla*, which contained the alphabet, syllables, and prayers. The pupil was first of all required to be able to read the alphabet forward and backward and to identify any single letter which the teacher might indicate. The pupil in reading the alphabet used a pointer, generally made of a piece of bamboo. Having mastered the letters of the alphabet, he would be required to learn the formation of syllables, and then the combination of syllables into words. After this, he would begin reading whole sentences in a singsong fashion, without understanding the meaning of the reading matter.

When the pupil had demonstrated his ability to read the *cartilla*, he was given another, much larger reader, popularly known as *caton*. Prayers were printed in this booklet which the pupil must commit to memory. The Christian doctrine was also studied simultaneously, the pupil being expected to repeat from memory every word of this tiny book. When he had memorized the Christian doctrine, he was given other prayer books, such as the *trísagion*.

The goal set before the pupils was to be able to lead in the prayers called "Rosary" and "Trisagion". The pupil who could repeat from memory all these ready-made prayers was given the privilege of leading in the school prayers.

If arithmetic was studied, the beginner was taught how to write numbers. Addition was the first operation taught, followed by subtraction, multiplication, and division. Speed was highly emphasized in these arithmetical operations.

Writing was taught by imitation. Using the ruled paper especially made for the purpose, the teacher wrote the letter to be copied by the pupil. The pupil was not permitted to write any other letter until he had copied accurately the model letter. He might fill several sheets of paper with the same letter before he could study another letter of the alphabet. The emphasis on writing well-formed letters is the explanation for the much-praised excellent penmanship of many Filipinos during the Spanish era.

Discipline

Rigid discipline was the rule rather than the exception in the schools of the period. The teachers followed closely the saying, "Spare the rod and spoil the child," which might well be the motto in the classroom. A smooth piece of wood or bamboo or rattan was always within reach of the teacher. It was generally used to whip the palm, leg, or any part of the body of the child who failed to recite his lesson satisfactorily or who committed some mischief. This was only one form of punishment. The teachers were exceedingly resourceful in de-

vising other ways of frightening the child, such as making him kneel on sand or mongo,¹ or before the crucifix or religious image, with arms outstretched, for as long as the teacher wished; compelling him to stand in an ant house; and twisting his ears.

In the classroom the children were permitted to read their lessons aloud while others were reciting. Thus, a class of 30 or 40 pupils could produce a deafening noise.

In going to church the children had to march in an orderly manner. They were taught to greet the teacher upon entering the schoolhouse, and upon leaving to bid him goodbye. The enforcement of the rules of good conduct was one redeeming feature of public education during the Spanish era.

In the public schools all pupils occupied a single room. The more-advanced pupils sat in the front row nearest the teacher's table and the beginners in the back seats.

*Grading of
Pupils*

The pupils received individual attention. They recited their lessons standing before the teacher or his student assistant. They were given individual assignments. When a teacher¹ was convinced that the pupil could recite the content of a text from memory, he would give the child a more-advanced text.

The schools were open throughout the year; but there were many holidays. Thursday and Sunday were the regular rest days in the week. In addition, there were many church holidays

*School
Term*

¹ Mongo (*Phaseolus radiatus*) is a small, spherical, edible bean.

which must be observed. During the rainy season, when roads became impassable and bridges were washed away, the schools would be closed. In the case of private schools, the duration of classes depended upon the convenience of teachers.

Conclusion

Such were the elementary schools for the masses during the period from 1863 to 1896. They represented the effort of the Spanish government to extend to the masses the kind of education that was also current in Latin Europe.

Contemporary Filipino thinkers, especially of the latter part of the nineteenth century, were dissatisfied with the educational system. Expressions of their views on education could be found in the writings and periodicals of the time. Their suggestions and ideas about education were impossible to carry out, because they were considered liberal and, therefore, dangerous to the Catholic religion and Spanish power. The ecclesiastical and civil authorities conspired to suppress the spread of liberalism in the country. During the time of Governor-General Weyler, Teodoro Sandico and Graciano Reyes, licensed teachers of primary and secondary instruction, applied for permission to open night schools for adults of both sexes, in accordance with a plan which they submitted. The application was disapproved on the ground that the school would undermine Spanish authority.¹

¹ They proposed to teach practical Spanish, elementary Spanish grammar, arithmetic, calligraphy, elementary geography, and gymnastics. *La Solidaridad*, 1889-1891, pp. 3, 4.

The public schools served to perpetuate Christian ideas and taught the Filipino boys and girls to pray by committing to memory the ready-made prayers which the schools offered. As has been said in preceding pages, the repetition of prayers was the principal activity of school children of the time. All prayers and no play made the children rather dull.

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CHAPTER VII

THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1863-1896 (Continued) AN ANALYSIS OF TEXTBOOKS

In order to gain a clear idea of the content of elementary instruction in the Philippines after the promulgation of the educational decree of 1863, an analysis of the textbooks used is indispensable. A mere glance at the list of subjects included in the elementary curriculum would convey the impression that primary instruction was rich and comprehensive, whereas, as has been stated in the preceding chapter, it was rather limited and inadequate.

Cartilla

Cartilla was the title of a booklet prepared by Francisco and Ramon Merino Ballesteros and used by beginners in the primary school. It contains the alphabet on the first page, followed by a few pages of syllables, some common prayers, the Ten Commandments, the three theological virtues—faith, hope, and charity—the “enemies of the soul”, and similar matters of a religious nature. This booklet served as the child’s first reader and prayer book. From this he learned the letters of the alphabet and the commoner prayers, such as “Our Father”, “Holy Mary”, and the “Credo.” The booklet is printed on very poor paper with paper cover that cannot withstand constant handling by a child, so that a pupil generally used several copies before he was given the next advanced

text. It is very plain, without any pictures or illustrations which might hold a child's interest.

Some *cartillas* are in the local dialect. An example of this type was the one used in the diocese of Cebú.¹ The notice printed in the booklet states that the catechism is intended for schools the teachers of which do not know Spanish. Another *cartilla* was in Moro and Spanish,² the authorship of which is attributed to the Jesuit father Jacinto Juanmarti. It is in Arabic characters. It was, of course, used in Mindanao by the Jesuits.

Libro Primero was another textbook for beginners whose author was Enrique Mandevil. It contains the alphabet, formation of syllables, and sentence construction. It has some illustrations and selections for reading.

Prepared by Angel Maria Teccadillos, this book *Páginas de la Infancia* is a collection of selected readings consisting of poems and short stories with a moral. They teach such lessons as to honor God and one's parents, honesty, diligence, thrift, and cleanliness. The religious character of the selections can easily be discerned by noting some of the titles which are as follows:

- "Bendice a tu Criador" (Praise your Creator).
- "Oración de la Mañana" (Morning Prayer).
- "El Ojo de la Prudencia" (The Eye of Prudence).
- "Hay otra Vida" (There is another Life).
- "La Voz Paternal" (Fatherly Voice).
- "La Niña Agradecida" (The Grateful Girl).
- "La Docilidad es un Tesoro" (Docility is a Treasure).

¹ *Abecedario, para uso de las escuelas primarias de la Diócesis de Cebú*, 7th edition, 1894. See Retana; *Aparato Bibliográfico*. Vol. III, p. 1289.

² Retana; *Aparato Bibliográfico*. Vol. II, p. 1067.

*Libro Pri-
mero para
Uso de los
Niños*

*Páginas
de la
Infancia*

"Los Tres Ancianos" (Three Old Men).

"La Mejor Herencia" (The Best Legacy).

"Súplica al entrar en el Templo" (Prayer upon entering the Church).

The Caton

The *Caton*¹ was a reader, spelling and prayer book, and arithmetic for children. Larger than the *cartilla*, it was used by children who had finished the first book. It contained prayers, the four fundamental arithmetical operations, syllables, and some common words and sentences in Spanish.

*Catecismo
de la
Doctrina
Cristiana*

The catechism was a very important textbook in the primary schools. The one most widely used was by Father Gaspar Astete which had been translated into the different Philippine dialects.² It began with the formula for making the sign of the cross which is followed throughout the Catholic world. It presented the teachings of the Church in the form of questions and answers which every faithful Catholic must know by heart. In addition it contained prayers to be said on particular occasions. Mastery of the catechism (that is, the ability to repeat every word in it) was encouraged and rewarded with prizes. No one could come to confession unless he had memorized its contents.³ So great was the emphasis placed on this subject that it was practically the only book the ordinary child studied in the public school.

¹ De Herranz y Quirós; *Caton cristiano*. Paper cover.

² Father Gaspar Astete; *Catecismo de la doctrina cristiana*, Manila, 1869. There were several editions of this catechism.

³ Persons desiring to be married must show the parish priest their knowledge of the Christian doctrine.

The following are some of the catechisms in various Philippine languages:

Catechisms

Society of Jesus: *Catecismo* in Spanish and Moro Languages, 1888. For use in Mindanao.

Augustinian Recollects: *Doctrina Cristiana* in Tagbanua dialect, for use in Paragua, 1889.

Recollect Friars: *Catecismo* in Zambales dialect, Manila, 1873.

Catecismo in Bisaya-Cebuano, 1892.

Jesuit Father: *Catecismo en Tiruray*. 1892.

Dominican Order: *Catecismo* in Pangasinan dialect, Manila, 1893.

Martinez, Domingo: *Catecismo* in Bicol, Manila, 1893.

Lopez, Francisco: *Catecismo Ilocano*, Manila, 1894.

Pavon, José Maria: *Catecismo del Padre Astete traducido al Bisaya Panayano*, Manila, 1886.

The *Trisagion* was a prayer book containing prayers to the Virgin Mary in verse form. Translated into the different Philippine languages, it was used not only by school children but also by adults. After the child had mastered the Christian doctrine, he was given this book, the contents of which must be memorized.¹

*The
Trisagion*

The *Cartilla Higiénica*, a booklet, which was prescribed in the elementary schools in 1895, was the work of Benito Francia y Ponce de Leon, then general inspector of public welfare and health in the Philippines. It contained general rules of hygiene, the common causes of sickness, and household remedies. Besides its place in the primary schools, it was highly recommended for the home. The booklet represents an attempt to enrich primary instruction; but, unfortunately it did not reach all the municipal schools in the towns.

*Una
Cartilla
Higiénica*

¹ *Devoto Trisagio*, Manila, 1879. The author is not mentioned. See Retana; *Aparato Bibliográfico*, Vol. II, p. 880.

*El Monitor
de los
Niños*

El Monitor de los Niños by Ascisclo F. Vallin Bustillo was used in the upper elementary grades of the boys' school. An encyclopedic textbook, it was reader, spelling book, arithmetic, geography, history, and political economy, all in one. With the exception of the reading matter, all the subjects were presented in the form of questions and answers. Naturally, only the barest information, mostly definitions, can be found in this textbook.

*Manual
de la
Infancia*

Prepared by the fathers of the Society of Jesus in 1893, this manual entitled *Manual de la Infancia* is a compendium of sacred history, religion, morals, urbanity, Spanish grammar, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history of Spain, and Philippine history. It contains some illustrations; but it is difficult for young pupils to read, being printed in small type.

Since 1893 this book has gone through several editions. It was used in the Ateneo de Manila, a Jesuit school for boys, until recently. The seventh edition, 1909, contains an English supplement entitled *Outlines of Grammar*, intended for beginners.

*La Escuela
de Instruc-
ción Prima-
ria*

La Escuela de Instrucción Primaria is the title of a textbook widely used in the primary schools. Its author is Doctor Ricardo Diaz de Rueda, a Spanish professor of Valladolid, Spain. It was published in 1844, and since then has been reprinted many times. The copy before the present writer is in the seventh edition, 1875. It bears an ecclesiastical license granted by the bishop of Valladolid, who affirms that the book is of high merit and con-

tains no teaching contrary to the Catholic religion. In addition to this laudatory statement, there is a notice that the commission of public instruction of the Spanish kingdom recommends its use in the elementary schools of the realm.

In 334 pages, size seventeen by eleven centimeters, the author presents a variety of subjects, ranging from the Old Testament to astronomy and physics. The illustrations, consisting mainly of biblical scenes, are of very poor quality. Blurred and diminutive, they mar rather than improve the appearance of the book. In the presentation of the various subjects the question-and-answer form, following the deductive method of general statement, prevails throughout.

Here is a summary of the contents of the book:

The first 45 pages are devoted to sacred history. Following a brief introduction are the questions and their answers, based upon the Scriptures. The author reiterates, among other things, the doctrine of the divine creation of the world out of nothing in six days; the creation of the first man Adam by God and his establishment in Paradise where he had nothing to do but pine for a companion; and so God bade him sleep and, extracting one of his ribs, fashioned the first woman, Eve; the deluge, which was caused by the general corruption of man; the life and work of Moses; and the birth of the Messiah of a virgin, his crucifixion, miraculous resurrection, and ascension.

*Sacred
History*

Religion

Under the topic of religion the fundamental teachings of the Catholic Church are enumerated in 19 pages. Here is a reaffirmation of the existence of the Supreme Being; the soul, which is defined as "a spiritual and immortal substance created and united by God with the human body;" the great necessity of public worship and splendidly decorated churches; the dogma of revelation and the Holy Scriptures; Christianity as the only true religion; and the Roman Catholic Apostolic Church as the only true church.

Three other religions are mentioned with contempt: Mohammedanism, Judaism, and paganism. The book states that Judaism was the true religion before the birth of Jesus; that, with the advent of Jesus, Christianity became the true religion; that, because they would not accept Jesus as the true Messiah the Jews were scattered all over the world by the will of God; that paganism is degrading to human intelligence and should be despised and combated; that Mohammedanism is a religion founded by an "impostor" called Mahomet of Arabia; that the Koran is "a collection of contradictory and licentious beliefs, ridiculous and impertinent fables, and the most indecent teachings, which only stupid and servile men will accept."

It is obvious that the aim of this section of the book is to stress conformity with the traditional Catholic beliefs.

Morals

Thirty pages are given to the subject of morals. Morals, law, conscience, virtue, happiness, justice, pleasure, society, and other

similar concepts are defined briefly. On these topics the author makes some interesting remarks. He says that happiness consists in the practice of virtue; that riches must not be coveted, for they do not lead to happiness; that learning is not conducive to happiness; that the man who possesses little learning but who is God-fearing is preferable to the learned man; that such worldly things as honors and riches must be condemned, for they are transitory, are acquired with considerable effort and, after all, are difficult to keep. These are assertions which savor of medievalism.

The duties of man are listed. His duties toward God are given first place. They are worship, gratitude, fear, confidence, love, and faith. In the second place are his duties toward himself. He must take care of his soul and body. Suicide and duels are vigorously denounced. In the third place are his duties toward his fellowmen. In his relations with his fellowmen he must follow the divine command, "Love others as you love yourself." There are sound precepts in this passage which aim to inculcate ideas of right conduct inspired by the fear of God.

Orthoepy is defined as the art of correct pronunciation. It is treated separately from grammar. The thirty-three questions with their corresponding answers on the subject are nearly all definitions of such terms as pronunciation, vowels, consonants, tone, articulation, and syllable. The short poem on orthoepy at

Orthoepy

the end of the chapter serves as a practical exercise in correct pronunciation.

Calligraphy

A theoretical explanation of the art of writing, which covers 6 pages, is entitled calligraphy. The Spanish bastard style, initiated by Juan Iciar in 1504, is held up as the most beautiful penmanship. The position of the hand in writing, the qualities of a good pen, the proper manner of holding a pen, and the correct distance between letters are briefly described.

*Spanish
Grammar*

Spanish grammar is compressed in 42 pages. Definitions of grammatical terms predominate. Prosody, orthography, analogy, abbreviation, parenthesis, conjugation, the parts of speech, and the like are each defined in short, terse sentences. The entire abstract on grammar is dull and lifeless.

*Rhetoric
and
Poetics*

Like the compendium of grammar, the section entitled rhetoric and poetics is just another collection of bare definitions of terms, such as synonyms, homonyms, thought, figures of speech, description, clauses, style, oration, and novels. Some hints to the aspiring orator are also given. An orator must be moral, well informed, and able to pronounce correctly and to make proper gestures. It states that, in order to inspire his hearers an orator must be moral; he must practice what he preaches; he must possess a command of his subject; his gestures must appear natural.

The few pages devoted to poetics are filled with definitions of verse such as the sonnet; lyric poetry; the drama; satire, heroic, moral, and "festive" odes; the elegy; and didactic

poetry. Here and there are inserted specimens of the various kinds of poems.

One encounters more definitions in the pages given to arithmetic. "What is arithmetic?" "What is addition?" "What is a fraction?" The answer to each question consists in a definition of the subject in one sentence. The four arithmetical operations are explained and an example of each is given. The whole subject of arithmetic fills 31 pages, its theoretical side occupying a large space.

Arithmetic

In 16 pages the author presents plane and solid geometry. In accordance with his general plan, he emphasizes the definitions of geometrical terms by answers to such questions as "What is geometry?" "What is a line?" "What is an angle?" "What is a circle?" Examples of geometrical solutions are few. A page filled with geometrical figures closes the subject.

Geometry

After defining the divisions of geography—astronomical, physical, and historical—and such terms as planet, comet, horizon, twilight, equator, antipodes, zone, constellation, and volcano, the author gives a brief description of the geography of each of the principal countries of the world.

Geography

Spain occupies the first place. Its boundaries, rivers, capes, lakes, canals, mountain ranges, provinces, capital cities, and ecclesiastical divisions are all mentioned.

The Philippines is declared to be a group of islands in Oceania, with the additional information that it belongs to Spain. The principal

islands of the archipelago are "Luzon, Mindanao, Paragao, Samar Panay, Cebu, Negros, Leyte, Mindoro, and Matan", in the exact words of the book.

Chronology "What is chronology?" "It is the science of computing time." "What is time?" Thus begins this section dealing with chronology. Then follow definitions of the terms year, month, week, day, hour, lustrum, hegira, and others. It gives a short history of the Gregorian calendar. In conclusion it declares that the study of chronology, like geography, is indispensable in understanding history; that the two studies are the "eyes" of history—*lumina historiarum*.

History The introduction to the section on history consists of a definition of history, biography, annals, chronicles, and journals, and the enumeration of the different kinds of history; namely, sacred, profane, universal, national, local, ancient, modern, ecclesiastical, and natural.

To each of the ancient civilizations is given a paragraph. According to this book, Rome was founded by Romulus, grandson of one of the kings of ancient Italy, in 753 B. C.

Under the topic of modern history are short accounts of the Byzantine Empire, Turkish Empire, Africa, Asia, the Americas, and Europe. Under Africa only Algeria, Egypt, and Morocco are mentioned. China is the only important country in Asia. The United States declared its independence in 1776 and George Washington was its president for "a long time."

As to English history the *magna charta* was granted in 1216 (instead of 1215); Charles I was beheaded in 1649; Cromwell became lord protector; James II abdicated; and William of Orange ascended the throne. The account of England ends with this last event.

Writing about France, the author asserts that "the anarchy and misfortunes" which befell that country as a result of the Revolution should serve as a good lesson to those "stupid" men who were in favor of revolution for other countries. The historical sketch stops with the year 1830.

Seven pages are given to the history of Spain which is divided into seven epochs. The account begins with the origin of Spain and ends with the death of Ferdinand VII in 1833. The author apologizes for the brevity of this historical sketch; and, to make up for the defect, he inserts a history of Spain in verse which is 11 pages long.

The 16 pages dealing with physics contain a large number of brief definitions of common terms, such as inertia, equilibrium, dynamics, thermometer, echo, rain, meteor, dew, thunder, and lightning. The definitions give a rather vague idea of the nature of this study.

Physics

Under the title natural history the author sets forth the most elementary notions of zoology, botany, and mineralogy. Zoology is explained in five pages; mineralogy, in one page; and botany, in five sentences.

*Natural
History*

Under the topic of zoology the author describes the five senses, the human races, the various stages in the life of man (giving the

information that the average duration of human life is thirty years), and the different kinds of animals.

The short paragraph on botany merely gives a definition of botany, plants, nutrition, and Von Humboldt's classification of plants.

Mineralogy is defined as a branch of natural history dealing with minerals. After defining a few words, the author explains that the presence of marine remains in elevated lands far from water bodies is due to the deluge which covered the earth with water, as related in the Bible.

The foregoing summary shows that this small volume contains all the subjects prescribed for the elementary school, with the exception of music and agriculture. It teems with dogmatic assertions that are paraded as truth; it is full of futile and bare definitions which only tend to confuse the mind of a child; it doles out precepts which induce intellectual inertia and perpetuate medievalism. The entire book is pervaded with a dull formalism which is appalling. The use of so inadequate and unpedagogical a textbook is a valid indictment against the elementary instruction that obtained during the Spanish régime.

Conclusion

This brief analysis of some of the elementary textbooks attests to the narrow content of primary instruction in the Philippines in the nineteenth century. The dominant feature of these books is religion. The prayers approved by the Catholic Church are given a very prominent place. The paper and printing of the texts are of very poor quality. Unattractive

in appearance and lacking in sufficient illustrations, they naturally failed to rouse the children's curiosity and interest.

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CHAPTER VIII

SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1863-1896

The organization of secondary studies in the Philippines was ordered by a royal decree of May 20, 1865. The decree confirmed the power of the University of Santo Tomás to supervise all secondary schools in the Islands.¹

*Regulations
for
Secondary
Schools*

The regulations for secondary schools were contained in another decree, dated January 28, 1867.² These schools were divided into two classes; namely, public and private. The University of Santo Tomás was considered a public institution. The Royal College of San José, the Royal College of San Juan de Letran, the Ateneo Municipal, the College of Bacolor, and all other secondary schools were classed as private schools. The private schools were of two classes. To the first class belonged those which offered the complete course leading to the bachelor of arts degree, and to the second class belonged those which offered only a part of the course for the bachelor's degree.

The supervisor and inspector of secondary schools was the rector of the University of Santo Tomás, by virtue of his office. His duties were enumerated in the decree of 1867 as follows:

¹ Juan Sanchez y Garcia; *Historical Documentary Synopsis of the University of Santo Tomás of Manila*, Manila, 1929, pp. 85 et seq.

² *Programa y Reglamento de Segunda Enseñanza para las Islas Filipinas*, Manila, 1867.



CLASSROOM IN THE ATENEO MUNICIPAL EQUIPPED ACCORDING TO THE
REGULATIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

To enforce the laws, rules, and programs pertaining to secondary instruction;

To adopt such measures as might be necessary for the maintenance of order and discipline in the schools;

To visit the classes to see that the materials for instruction were adequate and the methods of teaching sound;

To confer degrees according to existing statutes;

To forward to the superior civil government, with his recommendation, all petitions of colleges, students, and professors. The superior civil government would not consider any petition which was not endorsed by the rector, unless the petition was a complaint against him;

To make recommendations which he deemed necessary for the advancement of public instruction;

In the case of private schools not under any religious order, the rector, as head of secondary instruction, had the power to approve or disapprove the appointment of teachers;

To compel the use of textbooks approved by the government;

With the exception of priests, the heads of secondary schools must hold the title of "Licentiate;"

A teacher desiring to give private lessons to a student must secure beforehand the authorization of the superior civil government through the rector of the University of Santo Tomás.

The regulations further required that the professor's seat in the classroom must be on an elevated platform, and above it should be placed an image of the Savior, of the Holy Virgin, or of some saint.

The rector of the University of Santo Tomás possessed large powers over secondary instruction. By virtue of these regulations secondary instruction acquired a certain degree of uniformity.

*Private
Secondary
Schools*

The apparent rigidity of these regulations did not discourage the establishment of private secondary schools throughout the Islands by Filipinos who were qualified professors of secondary instruction. From ninety to one hundred private secondary schools were in existence in 1895.¹

According to the regulations, the private secondary school must be equipped with a collection of solids and sets of mathematical instruments; globes, maps, and spheres for the teaching of geography; and aids for the study of history. The secondary school of the first class must be provided, in addition, with a physics laboratory, a chemical laboratory, a natural-history collection, and a botanical garden if space was available.

Contemporary writers were wont to ridicule the scientific equipment of the secondary schools. The University of Santo Tomás and the Ateneo Municipal had laboratory apparatus; but, according to Rizal, the laboratory apparatus in the university was more for show than for teaching purposes.² Thus, the teaching of the natural sciences, except in the Jesuit college Ateneo Municipal, was carried on without the aid of the laboratory, the students memorizing the contents of their textbooks.

¹ Juan Sanchez y Garcia; *op. cit.*, p. 120. Raymundo Alindada, Enrique Mendiola, Ignacio Villamor, and Mariano Sevilla were among those who founded private schools of secondary rank. See Appendix A.

² José Rizal; *El Filibusterismo*, Barcelona, 1911, Vol. I, pp. 141 *et seq.* Rizal describes the physics class in the university in a satirical vein.

The length of the secondary course was five years. In the first year the subjects of study were Latin and Spanish grammar; Christian doctrine, and sacred history; in the second year, Latin and Spanish grammar, geography, and Christian ethics; in the third year, Latin literature, elementary Greek, universal history, history of Spain, arithmetic, and algebra; in the fourth year, rhetoric and poetics, Latin, Spanish composition, geometry, trigonometry, and social ethics; and in the fifth year, psychology, logic, moral philosophy, and French or English.

*Content of
Secondary
Education*

The method of teaching was unpedagogical. The students were compelled to memorize the texts and repeat the lessons before their professors. The class standing of the students depended upon their ability to memorize. The professors hardly took the pains to explain the text. The generality of students took little interest in their studies, resulting in the large difference between the number of matriculated students and graduates. A considerable number of students did not complete their courses.

*Method of
Teaching*

It will be noticed that in the secondary curriculum the study of Latin grammar and classics was emphasized. The professors who were drawn from the regular clergy were trained in the classics. Some of the textbooks used were a Latin grammar by Fray Francisco Gainza, a Dominican friar and professor of humanities in the University of Santo Tomás;¹ and for

Textbooks

¹ Francisco Gainza; *Gramática Latina para uso de la juventud filipina*, Manila, 1884. The first edition was published between 1820 and 1826.

Latin prosody, *Rudimentos de Prosodia Latina*¹ by Joaquin Sanchez Garcia, a professor at the University of Santo Tomás; for the study of Greek and Latin literature, *Selecta ex Classicis Autoribus ad usum juventutis in Universitate S. Thomæ Manilensi studentis*, by Fray Donato Berrio-Zabalgoitia y Belar, who was a professor in the College of San Juan de Letran;² and for Greek grammar, Fray Manuel Arellano y Remondo's *Gramática Griega Elemental*.³ Other texts for the teaching of the classics were *Collectio Latina ad usum juventutis in Universitate S. Thomæ Manilensi Studentis*⁴, and *Selecta Ex Optimis Latinitatis Auctonbus*, a book of selections from different Latin authors.

The study of the classics, according to the opinions of observers, did not benefit the majority of students. To the large number it was meaningless and served merely as an exercise for the memory. Only a comparatively few students, who were really gifted and would stand out under any system of instruction, derived the benefits that classical education gave.

Modern Languages

Besides Latin and Greek, French, English, and Chinese were also taught. The two modern languages were studied usually in the last year of the secondary course. The courses were most elementary.

Rhetoric and Poetics

Rhetoric and poetics were given in the fourth year. For the study of these subjects one of

¹ Imprenta de los Amigos del País, Manila, 1884.

² Typis Collegii Sancti Thomæ, Manila, 1897.

³ Establecimiento Tipográfico del Colegio de Santo Tomás, 1897.

⁴ Typis Collegii Sancti Thomæ, 1895.

the textbooks used was *Tratado de Retórica y Poética*, by Doctor Pedro Felipe Monlau.¹ It was in the official list of textbooks for the secondary schools in Spain and the colonies. Its author was professor of literature and history in the University of Barcelona and member of the Spanish Royal Academy. The book explains the rules of literary composition, prose and poetry, and the philosophy of literature. At the end of the book are the *Literary Fables* by Tomás de Iriarte and Horace's *Epistola ad Pisones* in Latin verse. These literary selections were intended to serve as models to students of rhetoric and poetics.

As regards religion this was, of course, an important subject of study. In the secondary course the Christian doctrine was studied again, using a more advanced text than that prescribed in the primary school.

Religion

An official text for this subject in the secondary school was Santiago José Mazo's *El Catecismo de la Doctrina Cristiana Explicado*. This was published in 1837 in Valladolid, Spain, and since then thirty-one other editions have appeared, for the book was well received, even outside of Spain, as in France and Portugal. In the subsequent revision of this work additions were made, such as the dogmas of the Immaculate Conception and Papal Infallibility, the Syllabus of Pius IX, and the Encyclical of Gregory XVI. As the title of the book indicates, it is an explanation of the Christian

¹ Fifth Edition, 1864, Libreria Clásica de la Publicidad, Madrid.

doctrine. The topics in the brief catechism are explained, one by one.

The subject of sacred history was also in the program for the first year. An approved text was Juan Diaz Beaza's *Historia Sagrada*. It presents the subject matter in the form of a narrative, accompanied by some engravings.

History

Aside from sacred history, in the third year students were required to study universal history and the history of Spain. Among the textbooks prescribed for the teaching of universal history was Alejandro Gomez Ranera's *Manual de Historia Universal*¹. It is a volume in quarto of more than 500 pages. For the history of Spain, the *Compendio de la Historia de España* by the same author was recognized as an official text. The tenth edition of this book, 1890, brings the history of Spain to the death of Alfonso XII. The history course included the three conventional divisions of history—ancient, medieval, and modern. The history of the Philippines is given space; but, as a whole, the course was fragmentary. The students acquired only general notions of the epochs of history.

Geography

Geography was taught in connection with history. A popular textbook, which in 1887 was approved by the government for this course, was Esteban y Faustino Paluzie's *Geografía*. It is illustrated and contains more than 400 pages. The general divisions of the book are astronomical geography, physical geography, political geography, and descriptive

¹ Sixth Edition, 1869. Imprenta de la Viuda e Hija de Gomez Fuentenebro, Madrid.

geography. Under the first division the student is introduced to astronomy. Aided by diagrams and pictures, the elementary facts of astronomy are briefly explained. The other divisions are treated in the same manner. Descriptive geography, however, receives the largest space—practically three-fourths of the entire book. Beginning with the European continent, naming its rivers, mountains, bays, seas, capes, islands, population, natural resources, and the like, the author gives a brief description of the different European countries, special attention being given to Spain. Thus, the reader acquires from this small volume a bowing acquaintance, so to speak, with the geography of the world.

The secondary-school student began the study of mathematics in his third year with arithmetic and algebra, and in his fourth year with geometry and trigonometry. These subjects were taught in a superficial manner, stress being laid on the definition of terms and the memorization of theories and principles.

Mathematics

In the fifth year the student was taught a little psychology, metaphysics, logic, and morals. The professors, who were members of the regular clergy, were renowned philosophers and metaphysicians.

Philosophy

The secondary curriculum embraced a large field with a distinctively cultural objective. The course also was intended as preparatory for the professional courses. At the completion of the program of studies the student could present himself for the customary examination to obtain the degree of bachelor of arts. The

Bachelor of Arts

examining board was composed of three professors. The examination, which was oral, consumed one hour. The judges rendered their decision by secret ballot. To each judge three balls were given, one marked with the letter S (*sobresaliente*, or excellent), the second with the letter A (*aprobado*, or approved), and the third with the letter R (*rehusado*, or disapproved). In order to receive the qualification of excellent the unanimous decision of the judges was required; that is, all the judges must drop in the box provided for the purpose the balls marked S. Otherwise the candidate would either be approved or disapproved, according to the majority vote. The candidate's grade was written on the diploma as either *Sobresaliente* or *Aprobado*.

The popular opinion on the bachelors of arts during the Spanish era was far from flattering.¹ Their knowledge of the cultural branches of study was superficial and fragmentary. They knew a little of everything, and thus they became the target of popular witticisms, unless they studied further and were admitted into any one of the recognized professions. It was the common belief that the bachelor of arts degree was only a means to get into the learned professions, and not an end in itself. If a bachelor of arts did not become a lawyer, a physician, or a priest, he was generally regarded as a failure.

¹ The popular joke was "Bachiller en Artes, borrico en todas partes." (A bachelor of arts is an ass everywhere).



de la Real y Pontificia Universidad de Sto. Tomás de Manila

[illegible][illegible]

Chas. M. Smith

Aug 4th 1881
 To the Hon. Secy of the
 War Dept.
 Washington



Sir Professor J. D. Mather

The revolution of 1868 in Spain radically changed the educational policy of the government. Before the revolution, the Spanish government placed numerous restrictions on education, intrusting it completely to the clergy. Immediately after the revolution, the provisional government proclaimed the freedom of education.¹ When the republic was established in 1873, one of its first decrees was on secondary education.² The preamble of the document expressed the republican attitude toward the aim and character of secondary instruction. It stated that secondary education should neither be dominated by the classics, nor be considered as merely preparation for the higher studies; rather, it should be complete, comprising all those branches of study that should form part of a cultured man's equipment, as well as those necessary for admission into the various faculties or professions.

The Spanish Revolution of 1868

Influenced by the political changes that had taken place in the mother country, the minister of the colonies, Segismundo Moret y Prendergast, framed two educational decrees which were approved by the regent in 1870. One of the decrees introduced drastic changes in secondary education in the Philippines. It provided for the merging of the educational establishments Ateneo Municipal, College of San José, College of San Juan de Letran, Nautical

The Moret Decrees

¹ Marcelo Martínez Alcubilla; *Diccionario de la Administración Española*, Fifth Edition, 1893, pp. 1001-1006.

² Decree of June 3, 1873, *supra*.

Academy, and Academy of Drawing and Painting into one body to be designated Instituto Filipino (Philippine Institute). All the foundations, funds, and endowments of these colleges would be used for the maintenance of the institute. Its director would be appointed by the government, with a salary of 1,500 pesetas. It revoked the royal order of December 21, 1861, and the royal decrees of December 20, 1863, and December 15, 1865. An interesting and novel provision of this decree was the introduction of the study of two Philippine languages, Tagalog and Bisaya, in the normal school. The Moret decree thus secularized secondary education, removing it from the control of the University of Santo Tomás and the other religious corporations.¹

The religious corporations were indignant at the colonial minister, the author of the decrees, and their representatives became active in Madrid in order to oust Moret from office and abrogate the hated decrees. On account of the political instability in Spain at the time, Moret did not remain long in office, and Abelardo Lopez de Ayala took his place. Two influential members of the Dominican order in Madrid, Fray Francisco Rivas and Fray Pedro Payo, procurator and provincial of the order, respectively, convinced the Madrid government of the great disaster that the Moret decrees would bring. In the memorials which they presented to the authorities, they expounded in glowing phrases the civilizing work of

¹ The proposed reforms regarding higher education will be discussed in the next chapter.

the University of Santo Tomás, the sacrifices of the Dominican friars which enabled the institution to flourish, and the patriotic service the university had rendered to the mother country in the past. Vigorously protesting against the Moret decrees, they alleged that Spain's power over her colonies would vanish if the control over public instruction were withdrawn from the religious corporations.¹ The archbishop of Manila seconded this protest, sending to Madrid a memorial signed by the local church dignitaries. The Madrid government heeded the protests and the Moret decrees were shelved. Thus, the religious corporations triumphed, and the attempt to secularize secondary education was abandoned.

Secondary instruction, as described above, remained unchanged until the end of the Spanish régime.

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CHAPTER IX

HIGHER EDUCATION, 1863-1896

Higher studies were pursued chiefly in the University of Santo Tomás. In the history of higher education in our country, this university of the Dominican order occupies the first place. Its growth until 1863 has already been traced in a previous chapter.¹

The reforms proposed by Minister Moret in 1870 affected the University of Santo Tomás. Under the Moret decrees the university was secularized and its name was changed to University of the Philippines. It was to be administered by a rector to be chosen by the civil government from among the members of the faculty. He was to be paid by the government. The new chairs created by the reform were to be filled by competitive examination as the need for them arose.

*The Moret
Decrees*

The Dominicans fought this proposed reform in Madrid. They cited the papal bulls of Innocent X and Clement XII which were contravened by the reform. They asserted that the Dominican order had always been in favor of improving instruction without secularizing the university.² With the fall of the ministry to which Moret belonged, the reforms were abandoned.

¹ See Ch. II.

² Memorial by Fray Pedro Payo, provincial prior of the Dominican order, a document in the Philippine Library.

*University
of the Phil-
ippines*

The superior government of the Philippines, upon the advice of the authorities of the University of Santo Tomás, sent to the Madrid government a set of reforms for the university in 1871. The Madrid government gave its assent in 1872. In accordance with these reforms the name of the university was changed to Royal and Pontifical University of the Philippines, the name which appeared in the documents of the university until 1875.

*Adminis-
tration of
the Univer-
sity*

The reforms were really a compromise. Instead of the civil government appointing the rector as provided in the Moret decree, the Dominican order was given the power to choose and appoint the rector and vice-rector from among the professors holding the degree of doctor and belonging to the Dominican order. The civil government was to be notified of these appointments. The appointees were to take the following oath: "I, promise and swear by the Holy Gospels that I shall be faithful and obedient to the King, our Lord and patron of this University, and to his vice-patrons who govern these Islands with his authority." The rector as well as the vice-rector were to serve without salary.

*School of
Medicine
and Phar-
macy*

The plan to establish a school of medicine was made as early as 1785; but, on account of the lack of students and of physical equipment, it was not realized. It was revived by the Moret decree. As the Moret reforms were not carried out, the plan did not materialize until the year 1871, when the University of Santo Tomás itself took the initiative and provided for two chairs of medicine and two of phar-

macy. In the following year, 1872, the procurator of the Dominicans in Madrid, Fray Pedro Payo, reported to the government at Madrid that the school of medicine needed laboratories, clinics, and dissecting rooms. In view of the fact that the funds were insufficient to finance the medical school, the procurator recommended to the government the conversion of the former Jesuit College of San José into the Royal College of Medicine and Pharmacy, under the University of Santo Tomás. All the income of the properties of San José could thus be used to defray the expenses of the school of medicine. This recommendation was approved by the royal decree of 1875.

The College of San José was acquired by the government in 1768 upon the expulsion of the society from the Spanish dominions. When the Jesuits were allowed to return in 1859, they agreed to relinquish their rights to the college. The college was well endowed with estates located in Laguna, Batangas, and Cavite. The income from these estates and eighty-seven shares in the Banco Español-Filipino since 1869 represented a respectable amount.

The administration of the college, upon the withdrawal of the Jesuits, was intrusted to the governor-general. With the establishment of the school of medicine and pharmacy in 1875, the rector of the University of Santo Tomás shared the power to administer the affairs of the college.

The college became the subject of protracted litigation between the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Manila and the government, upon the

*The College
of San
José*

establishment of American rule in the Philippines. In 1899 General Otis forbade the rector of the University of Santo Tomás to use the funds of the college for the maintenance of the medical school, and ordered the closing of the college pending an investigation of the affairs of the institution. The rector of the university reminded the military governor that the College of San José was church property, and should be respected by the government, in accordance with the Treaty of Paris of 1898.

The case of the College of San José was taken up by the Civil Commission, presided over by William H. Taft. A lengthy memorial signed by professors of the college was sent to that body. It petitioned for the reopening of the college, asserting that the Filipino people were not opposed to the continuation of the institution under the Dominican order and calling attention to the great injustice done to the students. In 1901 the college was reopened by order of General MacArthur.

The case was not settled, however, by the reopening of the college. In 1900 a Filipino attorney, Felipe G. Calderon, presented a memorial to the Civil Commission refuting the claims of the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Manila and the papal delegate regarding the ownership of the college. He contended that the governor-general, and not the Dominican rector, was the legal administrator of the college. He voiced the sentiment of the Colegio Medico-Farmacéutico, a society of physicians and pharmacists, whose president was Doctor Trinidad H. Pardo de Tavera. The Civil Com-

mission approved an act creating a board composed of Doctor T. H. Pardo de Tavera, Doctor Charles R. Greenleaf, Doctor Leon Ma. Guerrero, Doctor Manuel Gomez Martinez, and Doctor S. Bourns to take possession of the College of San José and maintain a school of medicine and pharmacy with the funds of the institution. The act set aside 5,000 pesos for the expenses of the suit. The Supreme Court, before which the case was brought, rendered its decision in 1909, recognizing the right of the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Manila over the College of San José and its properties.

The republican government of Spain approved this reform, which removed some of the objectionable features of the Moret decree but retained the supervision of the government over the university. The colonial minister and the governor-general were given the power to formulate the plans, programs, and rules for the university. The colonial minister had the power to fill vacancies in all the faculties except theology, and to fix fees for matriculation, examination, and graduation. The rector of the University of Santo Tomás protested against this interference of the government in the academic instruction in the university, asking that in all such matters the approval of the rector be obtained. The reform was clearly an indication of the desire of the Spanish government to control higher education.

The reform of 1875 also provided for the establishment of a school for notaries. The notarial course comprised three years. In the first year the elements of civil, commercial,

*The
Reform of
1875*

*School for
Notaries*

and penal laws of Spain must be studied; in the second year, the practice and theory of the drawing up of public instruments; and in the third year, the practice and theory of judicial actions and notarial fees. In addition to these studies, the student must practice in the office of a notary public for two years. To be admitted to the notary-public course the student must have studied paleography, economics, and the civil, judicial, and ecclesiastical organization of the Philippines.

*The
Professors*

There were religious and lay professors on the teaching staff of the University of Santo Tomás. The chairs of theology and canons, as well as several others, were filled by Dominicans. The lay professors were appointed by the Spanish colonial minister upon recommendation of the rector and the board of examiners which conducted the competitive examinations in Manila. They were divided into three groups, according to length of service. The number of lay professors in the second and third groups must never exceed two thirds of the total number of professors. The minimum salary was 5,000 pesetas a year, and the maximum, 6,000. To gain promotion in rank and salary a professor must have served six years.

*Matricula-
tion Fees*

In 1876 the schedule of fees enforced in the University of Santo Tomás was approved by the Philippine government. There were three kinds of fees; namely, matriculation, examination, and diploma. In the faculties of law, medicine, theology, pharmacy, and notariate, the matriculation fee for each year was 16 pesos, payable in two instalments. The matri-

culatation fee per subject was 10 pesos. The fee for the annual examination for promotion from one grade to another was 4 pesos. The examination fee for graduation varied according to the degree sought. For the bachelor's degree the examination fee was 20 pesos; for the title of licentiate, 45 pesos; and for the notariate, 10 pesos. The diploma fee for the bachelor's degree was 45 pesos; for notary public, 30 pesos; and for licentiate, 180 pesos. Part of these fees went to the examiners and officers of the university as honorarium, and the remainder, to the university treasury.

The school for midwives was established in 1879 by royal order, as a part of the school of medicine and pharmacy. The opening of this school was in response to the great need for trained midwives in the country.

*School for
Midwives*

In 1896 the University of Santo Tomás organized its courses in the sciences, philosophy, and letters into a regular college with a dean of its own.

*College of
Science,
Philosophy
and
Letters*

The class sessions in the university were one hour long, with the exception of those of the laboratory classes, which were longer. The lecture and recitation method prevailed. Once a week a student might be asked to read a paper, prepared beforehand.

*Methods of
Instruction*

The academic year began in July and closed in March. The holidays were the same as those observed in the lower schools.

The elaborate ceremonies attending a student graduation which were followed in 1785¹ were simplified in 1876, in accordance with regula-

*Graduation
Ceremonies*

¹ See Ch. II.

tions approved by the governor-general in that year. The parade through the city streets on the eve of graduation was abolished. The examination for graduation consisted of two exercises. The first exercise lasted one and a half hours. If the candidate was approved unanimously, he was permitted to take the second exercise. The three judges voted secretly by depositing in an urn balls marked A or R. One R ball meant that the candidate must wait six months before taking the second examination; and two R balls required him to wait eight months. If in the second examination the candidate failed to pass he would not be permitted to take another examination until after one year.¹ The examination in the school of medicine and pharmacy consisted of theoretical and practical exercises.

Enrollment

The records of the University of Santo Tomás showed a gradual increase in the number of students from year to year. The number of matriculated students in the different faculties can be seen in Table 2:

TABLE 2.
Enrollment in the University of Santo Tomás, 1865-1898.

FACULTIES	1865-1871.	1871-1883.	1883-1898.
Theology	378	83	9,555
Canon Law . . .	40	40	73
Roman Law . .	988	2,044	11,179
Philosophy . . .	1,770	262	229
Medicine		329	7,965
Pharmacy		359	2,503
Science			79
Notariate			1,586

¹ Juan Sanchez y Garcia; *op. cit.*, pp. 124 *et seq.*

Judging by these figures, the most popular courses during the period were law and medicine.

The number of graduates was much smaller than the enrollment. The following figures indicate the total number of degrees granted by the University of Santo Tomás during the period from 1865 to 1898:

*The
Graduates*

1865-1870	242
1870-1882	952
1882-1886	193
1886-1898	540

The university students who never completed their studies formed rather a large group. They were the butt of contemporary criticism and were used as a proof of the Filipinos' inferior mentality.

The problem of the graduates was unemployment. They blamed the government for not giving them the official posts for which they were fitted. The plight of the professional men was expounded in a memorial sent to the Madrid exposition in 1887 by the University of Santo Tomás. This interesting document alleged that the university graduates could not live on the income from their professions and the government refused to appoint them to official positions, preferring men who were educated in Spain. The aim of the various colleges of the University of Santo Tomás was to train men for service in the different branches of the government. Hence, the policy of the government was contrary to the purposes for which these colleges were created. The memorial urged the government to change its

policy in order to prevent political disturbances which might be caused by the large number of dissatisfied professional men who could not find work.

In spite of this unfavorable situation, it is fair to admit that the University of Santo Tomás fulfilled its task by furnishing the Philippines with intellectual leaders and patriots whose services proved valuable to the country as a whole.

European educational institutions also helped to give Filipino students higher education. During this period some Filipino students went to Europe for advanced study. A number of them, such as Rizal, Juan Luna y Novicio, Antonio Luna, Pedro A. Paterno, and Graciano Lopez Jaena, studied in Spanish universities. These students brought closer the cultural relations between Europe and the Philippines.

*Filipino
Students
Abroad*

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CHAPTER X

THE THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES, 1862-1896

One of the careers open to the Filipinos during the Spanish régime was the priesthood. The first seminary or training school for priests was the College of San José, which was founded by the Jesuits in 1601. However, the Spanish government, desirous of fostering the ecclesiastical career, issued a royal order in 1702 providing for the establishment of seminaries which would train Filipinos for the priesthood. The order was not carried out then, on account of the consistent opposition of the regular clergy. Hence, those who wished to pursue ecclesiastical studies went to the College of San Juan de Letran, University of Santo Tomás, and the College of San José. When the Jesuits were expelled from the Philippines, the archbishop of Manila opened a seminary in the Jesuit building, but the students attended classes in the University of Santo Tomás. There was also a seminary in the province of Nueva Cáceres, which was founded in 1793. The course of study for the priesthood was of a low standard, inferior to that in the seminaries in Spain. The organization of seminaries in accordance with the intention of the Council of Trent was accomplished by the Congregation of St. Vincent of Paul, who arrived in 1862.

*Seminary
of Manila*

Immediately upon the arrival of the Paulist fathers the archbishop of Manila placed them

in charge of the seminary in Manila which he had started. They took charge of the teaching of all the ecclesiastical subjects, such as dogmatic theology, moral theology, and Sacred Scriptures, liturgy, and religious music. They also taught canon law, beginning with 1895, when the approval of the archbishop was finally secured. There was for some time rivalry between the seminary and the University of Sto. Tomás regarding the teaching of theology and canon law. The university wanted to monopolize these courses and make the seminarists take them there. For one year, 1878-1879, this was done by order of Archbishop Payo; but, on account of the difficulty of this arrangement, it was abandoned.

The students in the Seminary of Manila had already completed their secondary education and studied in the seminary only the ecclesiastical subjects mentioned above. They spent four years in the seminary to finish the course.¹ They lived in the seminary, paying at the beginning 6 pesos and, later, 10 pesos a month. A few scholarships were awarded to deserving students. The holders of these scholarships did not pay for their board and lodging. Other students who worked as servants were also exempted from paying for board and lodging.

There were 53 students in the seminary when the Paulists took charge of it. In 1876 the number of students was 45 only. In the suc-

¹In 1894 the course was lengthened to six years. See *Breve Reseña Histórica de la Labor Realizada en estas Islas por la Doble Familia de San Vicente de Paul*, Manila, 1912, p. 43.

ceeding years it fluctuated between 50 and 70.

The graduates of the seminary numbered 323 by 1899. They were appointed to the different parishes in the Islands.

The Seminary of Manila was richly endowed with real estate in Manila and the provinces. This property was administered by the archbishop.

*Seminary-
College of
Nueva Cá-
ceres*

In the town of Nueva Cáceres, the seat of a bishopric, a seminary had existed since 1793. It had a professor of moral theology and liturgy and two professors, generally laymen, who taught Latin and the humanities.

In order to improve the instruction, Bishop Gainza invited the Paulists to take charge of the seminary. In 1865 the seminary passed to the control of the Paulists.

The seminary, besides offering the ecclesiastical course, also gave the studies of secondary education leading to the bachelor's degree. However, it did not have the power to confer the degree until 1891, when the University of Santo Tomás accredited it. Because of the secondary course given in this institution, it was designated Seminary-College of Nueva Cáceres. The plan of secondary instruction was the same as in other schools of secondary rank under the supervision of the University of Santo Tomás.

The seminary was supported by student fees and the produce of rice lands which it owned. Each student paid 7 pesos, and later 10 pesos, a month for board and lodging in addition to matriculation fees.

The enrollment was very large. Its students came from the different parts of Bicolandia, the majority of whom were enrolled in the secondary school. From 1865 to 1896 the average number of students every year was about 600. In 1891 there were 1,091 students. Those who finished the ecclesiastical course numbered 220 by 1912.

After the expulsion of the Jesuits, the bishop of Cebú petitioned the Spanish government to grant to him the properties of the Jesuit foundation and the College of San Ildefonso, to be used for a conciliar seminary. The Spanish government granted the petition and the transfer was effected in 1783. The Jesuit college with all its properties passed to the control of the bishop. The new school adopted the name Seminary-College of San Carlos.

*Seminary-
College of
San Carlos*

The bishop of Cebú intrusted the seminary to the Congregation of St. Vincent of Paul in 1867. The Paulists reorganized the seminary, introducing strict rules, especially for those preparing for the priesthood. In the first year many students left the seminary, complaining about the rigid discipline; but, after the second year, the enrollment increased considerably. In one year it was 700. Of the total yearly enrollment the number of students of theology was usually between 50 and 70 only.

Under the management of the Paulists, the seminary progressed markedly. By 1889 its buildings and church had been improved and enlarged. It had also a country house about two kilometers from the town, which served as a vacation place for students and professors.

Before 1891 the seminary offered some subjects leading to the bachelor's degree, as well as the ecclesiastical subjects; but in 1891 the full secondary course was given, with the authorization of the University of Santo Tomás. The students who completed the secondary course in the seminary took an examination in the University of Santo Tomás to obtain the bachelor of arts degree. Besides the secondary course, there was a primary department in the seminary. For the poor children of the town the seminary maintained since 1870 a separate primary school which was well attended.

The seminary was an important educational center in the Bisayan Islands. Not only did it train young men for the priesthood, but it also prepared many Filipinos for higher studies. As such, its educational influence was really extensive.

*Seminary-
College of
Jaro*

The diocese of Jaro, which comprised the Islands of Panay, Negros, Paragua, and part of Mindanao, was, prior to 1865, a part of the diocese of Cebú. The Holy See, realizing the immense size of the diocese of Cebú, created the diocese of Jaro in 1865. Its first bishop was Fray Mariano Cuartero, Dominican, and former professor at the University of Santo Tomás. Upon his initiative the seminary was established and placed under the management of the Paulist fathers in 1869. The building for the seminary was constructed from 1871 to 1874. It was a large structure with a capacity for 200 boarding pupils.

The seminary was a secondary school as well a training school for the priesthood. As in similar institutions, the number of students of theology was smaller than that of the secondary department. During the period from 1871 to 1891, the annual enrollment was between 300 and 400, boarding and day pupils. Of this number only from 40 to 60 were students of theology. From 1871 to 1921 the number of priests who graduated from this seminary was 120.

The reform of 1891 was applied to this seminary. In that year the complete secondary course was established. Since then a large number of students flocked to the seminary.

The diocese of Vigan had a seminary before the arrival of the Paulist fathers; but it needed improvement and, for this reason, the bishop of the diocese invited the Congregation of St. Vincent of Paul to take charge of it in 1872.

*Seminary-
College of
Vigan*

The Paulist fathers reorganized the seminary, introducing improvements in its physical equipment and plan of studies. The enrollment increased, showing the appreciation of the people of the north for this educational institution. It was both a secondary school and a theological seminary.

The Paulist fathers remained in this seminary until 1876. They had to withdraw on account of certain dissensions which arose between them and the bishop. They were replaced by the Recollect friars.

The priesthood career did not offer attractive inducements to the Filipinos. The history

Conclusion

of the various seminaries traced above shows how few were the Filipinos who pursued the career. The secular priests who graduated from the seminaries found the field crowded with friars. In 1870, of 792 parishes, 611 were in the hands of friars and only 181 were in charge of the secular clergy. The friars were manifestly opposed to the appointment of Filipino priests to the parishes. This was the cause of the prolonged controversy between the friars and the Filipino leaders and the bitter anti-friar feeling throughout the Philippines, especially after the tragedy of 1872, when the three Filipino priests Burgos, Gomez, and Zamora were executed by order of the Spanish government for their supposed complicity in the Cavite revolt of 1872.

The aim of the seminaries was to train Filipino priests to take charge of the parishes. The friars had no right to control the parishes; but, because of their great influence, they retained the parishes, trampling on the rights of the Filipino clergy.

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CHAPTER XI

TECHNICAL EDUCATION, 1863-1896

As the nineteenth century advanced, the popular demand for technical schools became more evident. Filipino and foreign writers emphasized the need for this type of instruction in the Philippines. As stated in a previous chapter, some vocational schools had been founded during the first half of the nineteenth century, in Manila and in some provincial towns. Many laudable government instructions were issued in the latter part of the century in regard to the operation of these schools.

School of Agriculture

Before 1863 there was already a plan to open an agricultural school sponsored by the Economic Society of Friends of the Country. Not until 1889, however, was the project realized. A royal decree of November, 1887, authorized the establishment of the school. It took the government two years to decide as to the best site for the school. Manila, instead of some province, was chosen, although no adequate place was available in Manila. The botanical garden, located in the Campo de Arroceros, was given to the school. The school occupied a rented building. It received from the government an annual appropriation of 6,000 pesos for its expenses, the purchase of equipment and materials, the upkeep of the botanical garden, and the payment of the rent. In 1891 the sum of 24,875.83 pesos was ap-

propriated by the government for the construction of a building for the school on an eight-hectare tract of land located in the district of Ermita, which had been purchased for the purpose. Nevertheless, the school was handicapped by the meagerness of its equipment and its limited annual appropriation.

The students were divided into two groups; namely, agricultural experts and overseers of farms. The students in the first group were required to finish the secondary course, including topography, elements of agriculture, and drawing. Then they studied three years in the agricultural school. The subjects of study were the following:

First Year

Agronomy, mathematics, topography, drawing.

Second Year

Special methods of cultivation, stock-breeding, assembling and handling of agricultural machinery.

Third Year

Rural economy, accounting, agricultural legislation, drafting of plans, practical farm work.

The examination for graduation consisted of two exercises, theoretical and practical. For the theoretical examination the candidate was asked to draw three slips of paper from a box. On each slip was written a topic. The candidate then explained each topic before the examiners. The practical exercise was also decided by lot. The candidate was allowed to use

whatever apparatus he needed for the explanation of his subject.

To be admitted to the course for overseers the student must have had an elementary education. The course comprised three years. In the first year, the subjects of study were general agriculture and the cultivation of herbaceous plants; in the second year, the cultivation of trees; in the third year, the care of livestock and the agricultural arts. The students were also caretakers of the plants of the school and received for their services 150 pesos a year.¹ At the agricultural stations in Isabel, Ilocos, Albay, Cebú, Iloilo, Mindanao, Leyte, and Jolo the course for overseers was also given.

The students who graduated from the agricultural school were, in the opinion of contemporaries well trained in their respective lines.² In 1889, 85 students were enrolled, 33 of whom were taking the course for agricultural experts and the rest, the course for overseers.

The University of Santo Tomás and the Ateneo de Manila also offered the course for agricultural expert.

*The
Nautical
School*

This school, which has been described in Chapter II, did not prosper. The enrollment was from 50 to 60 yearly. There was no enthusiasm for this study, owing to the fact that the graduates were not given opportunities to utilize their training. After one or two years of study they left the school to take up a more lucrative calling. Moreover, the school lacked

¹ *La Ilustración Filipina*, July 28, 1892, pp. 283-286.

² *Supra*.

the necessary equipment and, hence, the instruction was mainly theoretical. The course of study was as follows:

First Year

Arithmetic and its application to commercial navigation, banking, chronology, etc.

Second Year

Algebra, plane and solid geometry, plane trigonometry, etc.

Third Year

Spherical trigonometry, nautical astronomy, topography, preparation of terrestrial and maritime plans, drawing, etc.

Fourth Year

Navigation and piloting, physics, hydrography, meteorology, drawing, surveying, etc.

The school was maintained by the government, but received very little attention. It was administered by the commandant-general of naval stations.

The School of Commerce, whose beginning has already been traced elsewhere,¹ reported a total enrollment of 562 and 91 graduates during the period from 1866 to 1882.

*The
School of
Commerce*

The archbishop of the Philippines founded a music academy in 1742 for the purpose of training choristers for the cathedral at Manila. The plan of study was similar to that followed in the conservatory of Madrid. Singing, piano, violin, and organ playing were taught in the school. The instruction was of a high quality and the graduates of the academy gained distinction in their respective lines.

*Music
School*

¹ See page 44.

*Schools of
Arts and
Trades*

The establishment of trade schools was comparatively recent. It was not until 1890 that the government opened a trade school in Manila. The plan was to establish such schools in the provincial capitals of Iloilo, Ilocos Sur, Ilocos Norte, Albay, and Cebú, but only Iloilo was favored in 1893.

The trade school in Manila was housed at the beginning in a rented building in the Walled City. After the first two years, its quarters proved inadequate on account of increased enrollment. The government, therefore, in 1892, set aside the amount of 40,000 pesos for the construction of a permanent building for the Manila Trade School. The cornerstone of the new building was laid in October, 1892, in connection with the celebration of the fourth centenary of Columbus, and actual construction was started in December of the same year. The superior government, desirous of adequately equipping the Manila Trade School, further appropriated 1,000 pesos in December, 1892, for the establishment of an industrial museum for the school.¹ At the Columbus fourth centenary festival two students of the school were awarded cash prizes. They were Gumersindo Vallejo, who received a prize for excellence in carpentry, and Nicolas Navarro Reyes, for diligence.²

The trade school in Bacolor, whose building was burned in 1869, was favored by the government in 1892 with a grant of 8,044 pesos. A

¹ *La Ilustración Filipina*, December 7, 1892, unnumbered page.

² *Supra*, October 14, 1892, p. 1.

new building was erected and new equipment purchased. In 1896 this building also was destroyed by fire.

The trade schools opened in July and closed in March. The courses of study which were approved by the government in November, 1893, were as follows:

GENERAL COURSE:

- Elements of arithmetic and geometry in relation to arts and trades.
- Applied physics and chemistry.
- Elements of mechanics.
- Study of materials.
- Principles of construction.
- Mechanical and free-hand drawing.
- Ornamental figure drawing.
- Use of color for ornamental purposes.
- Modelling and carving.
- Commercial arithmetic.
- Bookkeeping.
- Commercial correspondence.
- French.
- English.
- Horseshoeing.
- Foundry.
- Locksmithing.
- Wheelwrighting.
- Carpentry.
- Boiler making.
- Cabinet making.
- Engraving.
- Printing.
- Lithography.
- Masonry.

DEPARTMENT OF APPRENTICE:

A. *First Division*

- Elements of physics.
- Elementary geometry.
- Plain drawing.
- Workshop.

B. Second Division

Elements of physics.

Study of materials relating to the trade in which the student was matriculated.

Workshop.

C. Third Division

Elements of mechanics.

Ornamental drawing.

Workshop.

MECHANICAL ENGINEERING:

A. First Division

Arithmetic.

Applied chemistry.

Industrial drawing.

Setting up of shops.

File work.

B. Second Division

Elements of applied physics.

Industrial drawing.

Setting up of shops.

Lathe work.

C. Third Division

Elements of mechanics.

Industrial drawing.

Designs of machines.

D. Fourth Division

Advanced mechanics.

Management and care of machines.

Mounting of machines.

Visits to industrial establishments.

ELECTRICIANS:

A. First Division

Elements of arithmetic and geometry.

Industrial drawing as applied to electrical machines.

File work.

B. Second Division

Applied physics and chemistry.

Industrial drawing.

Carpentry.

C. Third Division

Applied electricity.
Electrical units and measures.
Study of designs.

D. Fourth Division

Applied electricity.
Industrial electrical motors.
Setting up of electric plants.
Overhauling of electric plants.

For those who wished to become building contractors, the following course of study was prescribed:

CONTRACTORS:

A. First Division

Arithmetic and geometry.
Lineal and topographical drawing.
Stave cutting and masonry.

B. Second Division

Elementary trigonometry.
Descriptive geometry.
Topography.
Ornamental drawing.
Carpentry.

C. Third Division

Elements of physics.
Static mechanics.
Study of materials.
Architectural drawing.
Workshop.

D. Fourth Division

Elements of stereotyping.
Construction.
Legislation, city property.

The commerce course which led to the certificate of *perito mercantil* (commercial expert) was as follows:

COMMERCIAL EXPERT:

A. *First Division*

Commercial arithmetic.

Geography.

Elementary French.

B. *Second Division*

Geography.

Commercial statistics.

Bookkeeping.

English, first course.

French, second course.

C. *Third Division*

Elements of political economy.

Commercial and industrial legislation.

Commercial correspondence.

English, second course.

For the teaching staff of the trade school the order of the superior government of November, 1893, provided for eleven professors and nine assistants. This staff was very small, considering the large number of subjects to be taught, according to the program of studies.

More than 2,000 students were matriculated in 1894, but only 309 took the final examination, and of this number 268 passed. In the academic year 1895-1896 there were 899 students in the Manila Trade School and 1,007 in the Iloilo Trade School.

The Superior School of Painting, Sculpture, and Engraving

The School of Fine Arts, which was started in 1849,¹ was reorganized in 1893 and designated the Superior School of Painting, Sculpture, and Engraving. The Filipinos had shown marked aptitude for this study, as the careers of Juan Luna and Felix Resurrección Hidalgo, two painters who were well-known

¹ See Ch. II.

here and in Europe, proved. In local contests for artists students of the school had won prizes.¹ The average yearly enrollment during the period from 1872 to 1883 was over 400.

By the reform of 1893 the program of studies was enlarged. The new plan included courses in drawing figures and landscapes, drawing from life, history of art, perspective, elementary decorative painting, water color, drawing from life, history of art, perspective, study of ancient apparel, coloring and original designing, modelling in wax, modelling from antique statuary and drapery, anatomy and anthropology in their artistic aspects, modelling and molding from life, pen-and-ink sketching, and engraving.

There were no admission prerequisites. Students could study as long as they desired.

The foregoing account of the technical schools in the Philippines during the Spanish era demonstrates the attempt made by the government to foster the economic development of the country by means of education. The idea that technical education should be emphasized in this country was already a popular one. However, the schools did not come up to the expectations of the thinking and well-travelled Filipinos, who had seen in Europe how such institutions were managed. On account of official neglect, the schools led a languishing life. As their equipment was insufficient, they

Conclusion

¹ Among the prize winners were women. Pelagia Mendoza won a prize for a bust of Columbus presented at the celebration of the fourth centenary of Columbus in 1892. See *Ilustración Filipina*, October 21, 1892, p. 374.

stressed theoretical rather than practical instruction; and, because of lack of government patronage for their graduates, their enrollment was generally small.

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CHAPTER XII

THE NON-CHRISTIAN FILIPINOS AND EDUCATION, 1565-1898

The Spanish missionaries made strenuous efforts to bring into the Christian fold the mountain people and the Mohammedans in the Philippines. Their chronicles record their zeal in this work, which was very hazardous and cost the lives of many of them.

In Mindanao they found the Moros in an advanced state of culture. These people are Mohammedans; they had laws, an organized government, schools, and an alphabet. In the schools children were taught to read and write as well as the Mohammedan religion. They were proud of their culture and resisted attempts to Christianize them. However, the Jesuits were able to establish missions in some points on the Island. The frequency of wars and then the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1768 interrupted missionary activity. When the Jesuits came back in 1859, they resumed their work. The government relied upon the missionaries to bring about peace among the inhabitants and to open up the country to colonization. By the end of the Spanish régime slight improvement was registered in the situation.

The Moros

Among the mountain people the work of the missionaries was directed toward the formation of villages of mountaineers and baptizing the people.

*The
Tinguianes*

Augustinian missionaries worked among the Tinguianes in Abra and Ilocos, reporting at various times a number of conversions. The Tinguianes were gentler than the other mountaineers. Being an industrious tribe, they carried on trade with other people, thus coming into frequent contact with Christians.

The Igorots

The Igorots were found to be a stubborn tribe, repelling the missionary attempts to Christianize them. By the end of the eighteenth century a small number of this people inhabiting the lowlands near Vigan, Ilocos Sur, and Tuguegarao, Cagayan, was leading a settled life and paying tribute. From 1823 to 1829 an Augustinian monk, Fray Bernardo Lazo, claimed to have been able to form a village of 8,000 Igorots in the Province of Abra.

*The
Negritos*

The Negritos resisted all attempts to Christianize them or to reduce them to village life. In the Province of Pampanga, about 1881, there was a small village of Negritos, but it lasted only a year. The Negritos went back to the mountains.

*The
Mangyans*

The Mangyans on the Island of Mindoro, according to Augustinian missionaries, were easier to deal with, and some were induced to settle in a village near Naujan, a coast town of the Island.

*The
Manobos*

Missionary activity among the Manobos in Davao resulted in the conversion and reduction to village life of 12,000 of this tribe by 1886.

*The
Mandayas*

The Dominicans attained a certain degree of success in their missionary work among the Mandayas of Davao. This people possessed

a distinctive culture. They had a government, a religion, and a language of their own. They were principally a manufacturing people.

The Spanish missionaries reached as far south as Palawan and converted into Christianity the Tagbanuas who occupied the central part of the Island. The Tagbanuas used an old alphabet and wrote in vertical columns from top to bottom and from right to left.

*The
Tagbanuas*

In the eighteenth century the Augustinian friars in Nueva Vizcaya were able to convert a number of Italons, a tribe belonging to the larger group known as Ilongot. No permanent results were recorded in this missionary effort. However, in Nueva Ecija and Pampanga the Augustinian friar Alejandro Cacho was able to establish some villages, open roads and schools, and build churches. He worked until his death, in 1748.

*The
Italons*

Efforts to convert the Apayaos, who lived in the mountains of Ilocos Norte and Cagayan, were made by Augustinian missionaries. Villages were formed and a number of conversions were reported.

*The
Apayaos*

A perusal of the chronicles written by missionaries reveals the diligence and zeal of the Spaniards in bringing the Faith even to unwilling and hostile peoples. The chronicles mention the dangers and sacrifices which the missionaries underwent in the performance of their duties. The resistance offered by the brave Filipinos of the mountains, who preferred freedom to Christianity, was responsible for the many sacrifices recorded and the meager results of the work of evangelization.

Conclusion

From the cultural point of view, the missions were very fruitful. They enabled the missionaries to study the habits, customs, and beliefs of the various Philippine peoples. Their accounts contained valuable data for the scientific study of the populations of the Philippine Islands.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE EDUCATIONAL IDEAS OF THE FILIPINOS, 1863-1896

Though unable to determine the type of instruction which should prevail in their own country, yet Filipino thinkers of the nineteenth century did not hesitate to express their ideas concerning education fit for their people.

One common idea among them was the secularization of education, divorcing it entirely from the powerful religious orders. This did not mean, however, the complete abandonment of the study of religion in the schools. One can find in the plan of a modern school drafted by José Rizal in Hongkong the study of "religions."¹ The strong opposition of the Filipino leaders to the existing system of religious instruction was due to its narrow aim—that of making the people the passive, servile, and blind servants of the friars. Although the Filipinos, in unmistakable language, denounced the friars and their abuses, they did not attack the Church and the Catholic faith. They demanded, however, the removal of the public schools from the exclusive control of the parish priests. Marcelo H. del Pilar (1850-1896), a leading Filipino thinker, explained very convincingly the desirability of this change, in his

*Seculariza-
tion of
Education*

¹ Reprinted in *The Philippine Review*, Vol. I, No. 12, December, 1916. See Appendix B.

monograph entitled *La Soberanía Monacal*.¹ He pointed out the fact that the friar control over education defeated the very purpose of the educational decree of 1863, because the friars were opposed to the education of the Filipinos. Graciano Lopez Jaena (1856-1896) in his speeches also pleaded for liberty of education. The plan of Moret to establish a university free from clerical control, which has been mentioned elsewhere, was enthusiastically received by the Filipinos.

*The
Castilian
Language*

The educated Filipinos strongly advocated the teaching of the Castilian language to the masses, for the purpose of establishing a common language. Rizal included the study of Tagalog, the principal Philippine language, in the curriculum of his "Modern School" which he proposed to establish in Hongkong, but he did not advocate then its adoption as a national language.² In various instances, the Filipinos expressed their desire to learn the Castilian language and their regret at the failure of the public schools to spread the language. The *Asociación Hispano-Filipina* in Madrid, composed of Spaniards and Filipinos, among whom were Marcelo H. del Pilar, Mariano Ponce, and Tomás Aréjola, had as one of its objects the compulsory teaching of Spanish in all schools in the Philippines.³ The women as well as the

¹ Published under his *nom de plume* Plaridel, Barcelona, 1888. It was a brilliant exposition of friar rule in the Philippines.

² In the Constitution of Biac-na-bato, 1897, Tagalog was declared the official language.

³ Kalaw; *Development of Philippine Politics*, Manila 1926, Vol. I, p. 40.

men were keenly interested in the study of this language. The aim of the well-to-do families in sending their girls to the convent schools in Manila was to learn the Castilian language. Those who could not afford to study in the schools in the capital tried their best to learn the language from local teachers. The petition of the women of Malolos, Bulacan, which is printed in the appendix, was typical of the attitude of the women toward the Spanish language. Possession of a knowledge of the language was regarded as a mark of social distinction.

The classical idea that body and mind should be equally developed was current among the Filipinos of the nineteenth century. One can find in the utterances of the Filipino intellectuals references to the need of physical education. Rizal again gave realization to this idea by including it in the curriculum of his "Modern School", under the name of gymnastics. He would teach the students fencing, swimming, horsemanship, and dancing, which are now a part of the curriculum of an up-to-date school.

*Physical
Education*

Filipino views on vocational education were well defined. They placed much value on the power of vocational training to lift the people from slavery into freedom. For this reason the school of arts and trades received the unconditional approval of the Filipinos. Rizal would open such schools in all the provincial capitals with more than 16,000 inhabitants.¹ He him-

*Vocational
Education*

¹ Retana; *Vida y Escritos del Doctor Rizal*, p. 274.

self put into practice his theory of vocational training in Dapitan, during his exile. Under his guidance the pupils of his school learned masonry and other useful arts. Graciano Lopez Jaena also urged the youth to study the practical arts. The martyr priest Mariano Gomez believed in practical education, alleging that social efficiency was the test of education. With his own money he helped to promote agriculture and industry in Cavite.

The Filipino intellectuals, in urging their countrymen to pursue the industrial careers, defied the tradition of their time. It was then held that law, medicine, and the priesthood were the only honorable professions, and that manual labor was degrading. Rizal's example, above all, impressed the people with the dignity of manual labor.

*Universal
Education*

Even the unlettered Filipinos of the time believed in the need of extending education to the masses. The desire for popular education did not germinate under the American flag. It had been the longing of the Filipinos long before that flag was unfurled over these Islands. In some of the documents of Philippine history one can find expressions of this desire. The constitution of the patriotic society *La Liga Filipina* declared as one of its aims the encouragement of popular education. Newspaper articles also voiced this sentiment, favoring the establishment of barrio schools so that education would reach those who lived in remote places, far from towns. The idea that education should be popular and not aristocratic was already prevalent among the Filipinos. It

attested to the democratic leanings of the people.

The need of sending meritorious students to foreign countries was also realized by Filipino leaders of thought. Old Europe and young America, in the words of Graciano Lopez Jaena, had much to teach the Philippines. The most talented and promising Filipinos should be sent to these countries to study. The Philippines would profit from what these might learn abroad.

*Sending
abroad of
Students*

It was held by the Filipino intellectuals of the period that the inculcation of patriotism should be one of the aims of the public schools. This was, of course, entirely ignored in the schools, for the teacher who attempted to inculcate ideas of patriotism in the minds of his pupils would be the object of persecution. Academic freedom was unknown. Already there were Filipinos who deplored the slight attention given to the teaching of Philippine history. Rizal included Philippine history, independent of either universal or Spanish history, in the curriculum of the "Modern School." Apolinario Mabini, Lopez Jaena, Andres Bonifacio, and other less-known Filipinos urged the teaching of patriotism to the Filipino youth.

Patriotism

Severe criticism against the prevalent education of Filipino women was voiced by Filipino writers and thinkers. Graciano Lopez Jaena, in clear and mild phrases, censured the generosity of Filipino women to the friars and the Church. With the gifts that they showered

*Education
of Women*

on the priests, Lopez Jaena said that they could found schools and build hospitals, which would be a blessing to the people in general.¹ Rizal, in a lengthy address to the women of Malolos in 1889, expressed his views on the education of Filipino women.² He regretted their blind submission to the priests. He reminded them that religion did not consist in repeating often "kilometric prayers", kissing the hands of the parish priest, kneeling, and wearing greasy scapularies. He enjoined them to use their reason rather than obey blindly their confessors. If the women did not emerge from their ignorance, they would perpetuate their country's slavery. If all they could teach their children was to kneel, pray, and kiss the hand of the priest, they would bring up only slaves. A country whose women were wrongly educated would never progress. Asia was backward, wrote Rizal, because of the ignorance and slavery of its women; Europe and America were strong and powerful, because their women were educated and free. Filipino women should endeavor to enlighten themselves so that, like the women of ancient Sparta, they could educate their children, teaching them to love their country and prefer death to dishonor.

¹ Graciano Lopez Jaena; *Discursos y Articulos Varios*. Barcelona, 1891. The title of the article is *Una frase de amor persuasiva a las bellas y elegantes damas de Filipinas*, pp. 301-311.

² *A las Compatriotas Doncellas de Malolos*. Reprinted in *The Philippine Review*, December, 1916, Vol. I, pp. 27-30.

In the opinion of Filipino thinkers, the education of Filipino women of the nineteenth century left much to be desired. Their education made them into helpless beings and tools of the priests. Their mentors deliberately kept them in ignorance, giving them to read nothing but fantastic *awits*¹ and *novenas*.² In as much as women were a valuable factor in the emancipation of a country, they should receive the right kind of education which would enable them to play the rôle for which they were destined.

The leading Filipino intellectuals gave serious thought to the problem of education. Realizing the defects of the system of education then established, they formed their own educational ideas, imbued with the modern spirit. They were guided by the new tendencies in education current in Europe in the 80's. The system of free secular schools, from the lowest to the highest grade, was being adopted in various European countries in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and technical schools were being opened in response to the demand of the new industrial era. Echoes of these European movements reached the Philippines.

In the next chapter we shall see how the Filipinos, under the ephemeral Philippine Republic, put into practice their educational theories.

Conclusion

¹ Stories in verse, written in the vernacular, of martyrs and imaginary characters.

² The *novenas* were prayers to be said in nine days in honor of some saint.

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CHAPTER XIV

EDUCATION DURING THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD, 1896-1899

The revolution, which began in August, 1896, under Andres Bonifacio and Emilio Jacinto, the leaders of the Katipunan, led to the disorganization of the schools. As the revolution spread to the different provinces, many schools had to be closed.

The attitude of the Filipino revolutionists toward education was expressed formally in the provisional Constitution of Biac-na-bato of November, 1897.¹ In Article XXII of this document the freedom of education was declared. This clearly signified the termination of the monopoly over education hitherto enjoyed by the religious bodies. On account of the peace concluded between the Spaniards and the Filipinos, known as the Pact of Biac-na-bato, in November, 1897, the revolutionary government was not able to function. However, the peace lasted a very short period. The Spanish government did not fulfill its promises of reform and the unrest continued. Then, on April 1, 1898, the Spanish-American War broke out. Aguinaldo returned to the Philippines and the revolution was resumed. By the middle of June, 1898, the Spaniards had been driven out of several provinces and Philippine in-

¹ Printed as Appendix B in Kalaw's *The Development of Philippine Politics*, Manila, 1926.

dependence had been declared at Kawit, Cavite. In view of the troublous times, Aguinaldo was proclaimed dictator. When Apolinario Mabini became the adviser of Aguinaldo, the dictatorship was transformed into the revolutionary government. Its head was called president, and he was assisted by a cabinet composed of four, and later six, department secretaries. The six departments were as follows: Interior, war, foreign relations, finance, justice, and *fomento*, or the department of public instruction, public works, commerce, communications, industry, and agriculture. There was a revolutionary congress, whose members were to be elected by the town chiefs, in accordance with the decree of June 18, 1898, organizing local government.

*Education
under the
Revolution-
ary Govern-
ment*

The revolutionary government, despite the critical situation of the country, attended to the problem of public instruction. In the office of the secretary of *fomento* was a director of public instruction, who was in charge of educational matters. Acting upon the advice of this department, the president promulgated several decrees concerning public instruction. An analysis of these historic documents will give a fair idea of the educational program of the revolutionary government.

*Universidad
Literaria*

The Filipino revolutionists, whose ideal was to establish a state university, proceeded to create one on October 19, 1898¹ which was

¹ The decree creating the university was published in *El Heraldo de la Revolución*, official organ of the Philippine Republic, October 23, 1898, p. 67, and October 27, 1898, p. 77.

named Universidad Literaria de Filipinas (Literary University of the Philippines). The courses in the university were law, medicine, surgery, pharmacy, and notary public. The university was administered by a rector, who was elected by the members of the faculty. Four professors, also to be chosen by the faculty, were to form a committee to advise and help the rector. The secretary of the university must hold either the title of licentiate or that of doctor. The salaries of these men would be paid by the government. The secretary and the professors were to be appointed by the government. All the diplomas from the university, in order to be valid, must bear the signatures of the president of the revolutionary government and the secretary of *fomento*. The first academic year began on November 15, 1898, and closed in April, 1899. The first seat of the university was Malolos with the convent of Barasoain as headquarters and, later, Tarlac when the government moved to that town.

The first rector of the university was Joaquin Gonzales, and the second and last one was Leon Ma. Guerrero. The secretary was Mariano Crisostomo. The faculty was composed of the following well-known men:

Faculty of Civil and Canon Laws: Cayetano S. Arellano, Pedro A. Paterno, Arsenio Cruz Herrera, Pablo Ocampo, Hipólito Magsalin, Tomás G. del Rosario, and Felipe Calderon.

Faculty of Medicine and Surgery: Trinidad H. Pardo de Tavera, José Albert, Salvador

Vivencio del Rosario, Ariston Bautista, Isidoro Santos, Justo Lukban, José Luna, Francisco Liongson.

Faculty of Pharmacy: Mariano Vivencio del Rosario, Antonio Luna, Leon Ma. Guerrero, Alejandro Albert, Enrique Perez, Manuel Zamora, and Mariano Ocampo.

Faculty of Notary Public: Aguedo Velarde, Arcadio del Rosario, and Juan Gabriel Manday.

On the anniversary of the ratification of independence by the revolutionary congress, September 29, 1899, the Literary University, then in Tarlac, conferred degrees on law and medical students who had completed their courses in that year in the University of Santo Tomás. The rector, Leon Ma. Guerrero, delivered a patriotic address to the graduates.

It was the plan of the revolutionary government to make the Literary University the center of higher education in the country. Only the brevity of the life of the Philippine Republic prevented the realization of this plan.

*Secondary
Education*

It was likewise the policy of the revolutionary government to place secondary schools under state control. The first step in this direction was the recognition of the Burgos Institute¹ as a school of secondary rank. The director and professors of the school were to be appointed by the director of public instruction. All the regulations for the school must also be approved by the government.

¹This school was founded and administered by Enrique Mendiola, in Malolos, Bulacan.

A decree dated October 24, 1898, promulgated by the president of the revolutionary government, defined the scope of secondary instruction. In order to be admitted to a secondary school the student must pass an examination on the following subjects of study: Arithmetic, elements of geometry, Spanish grammar, and geography.

The official course of study of the secondary school was as follows:

Latin grammar: First course, analogy, syntax, and exercises in orthography; second course, advanced syntax, prosody, versification, and exercises in translation and orthography.

General geography with emphasis on Philippine geography: First course, astronomical and physical geography; second course, ancient, medieval, and modern political geography.

General history with emphasis on Philippine history: First course, ancient and medieval history; second course, modern and contemporary history.

Spanish literature: First course, rhetoric and poetry; second course, classic authors and their masterpieces.

Arithmetic and algebra.

Geometry and trigonometry.

French: First course, reading and grammar; second course, writing from dictation and conversation.

English. Two courses, the same as for French.

Natural history: First course, zoology and botany; second course, mineralogy, geology, and elements of physiology and hygiene.

General chemistry.

Philosophy: First course, psychology, logic, and ideology; second course, anthology, cosmology, and theodicy.

The completion of the above course of study was made a requisite for the study of any

profession. It will be noted that religion is not included in the program of studies. Philippine history and geography are given an important place. Latin is retained, showing that the course was still under the influence of classicism. The inclusion of the natural sciences was in keeping with the nineteenth century scientific advance. Altogether the course of study reveals the various influences that pervaded Philippine life—classical, scientific, and modern. The objective of the course was distinctively cultural.

At the completion of the secondary course the student obtained the degree of bachelor of arts. The diploma was signed by the secretary of *fomento*. The system of examination was the same as that in the other schools under the Spanish régime.

Vocational Courses

In addition to the general secondary course described above, the Burgos Institute was authorized to give vocational courses, such as those offered in the other secondary schools. They were courses leading to the certificates of commercial expert, surveyor, and agricultural expert. The course for commercial expert comprised the study of the elements of economic, industrial, and statistical geography, accounting and bookkeeping, political economy, commercial and coöperative associations, comparative commercial legislation and customs systems, commercial and accounting operations and correspondence, and the French, English, and Italian languages. The surveying course

comprised theoretical and practical elementary topography, including the measuring of surfaces, surveying, and the making of plans, and lineal, topographical, ornamental, and figure drawing. The agricultural course comprised elements of industrial mechanics, applied chemistry, and elements of agriculture.

The school of agriculture as well as the school of fine arts, which were founded during the Spanish régime, continued to admit students. As stated elsewhere, these schools were maintained by the government.

Women could study the courses of the secondary grade under private tutors and take the official examination for the bachelor of arts degree. This was the only concession to women that could be found in the educational decrees of the revolutionary government. In connection with the Literary University, the government was silent about the admission of women.

*Women and
Secondary
Education*

A much-needed school, a military academy, was established in Malolos by the revolutionary government. It was intended for the training of officers for the army. The director of the academy was Manuel Sityar.

*The Military
Academy*

The policy adopted by the revolutionary government was to keep open all the primary schools that were in existence during the last days of the Spanish régime. Decrees to this effect were issued by the secretary of *fomento*. One of the decrees contained the official primary-school curriculum. It was sent to all the municipalities for their guidance.

*Primary
Education*

Primary instruction was the subject of a lengthy editorial in one of the influential newspapers of the time, *La Independencia*, for October 29, 1898. It called attention to the importance of this branch of public instruction to the progress of the country. It proposed the following curriculum for the public elementary schools:

First Year:

Writing, arithmetic, physical education.

Second Year:

History of the Philippines (by a Filipino author), geography, agriculture, morals, rudiments of natural history, arithmetic, hygiene, physical education.

Third Year:

Commercial geography, commercial arithmetic, agriculture, geometry, elementary physics and chemistry, hygiene, drawing, physical education.

The proposed curriculum was distinguished by the absence of the course in Christian doctrine and the emphasis on physical education. The text on Philippine history, it was specified, must be prepared by a Filipino author.

Teachers

The teachers who were in charge of the public schools at the outbreak of the revolution were ordered to remain in their posts until the revolutionary government should decide otherwise. They were urged to use all their influence in encouraging the children to attend school.

The supervision over primary schools was given to the municipal president. This town official must keep in his office a roll of the teachers and take note of their absences.

The teachers were forbidden to reside in the schoolhouse or to engage in any trade or business, under penalty of being suspended or discharged by the director of public instruction. This order was a radical departure from the practice during the Spanish régime, when teachers were obliged to live in the schoolhouse or, rather, hold school in their residences, and practice some trade in order to supplement their salaries as teachers.

The salaries of teachers would be paid out of the municipal funds punctually on the first of the month. The municipal president was required to send the salary of a teacher to his residence. *La Independencia* for October 8, 1898, regretted the delay in the payment of teachers' salaries.

Vacancies in the public schools were to be filled by competitive examination among qualified teachers, holders of certificates.

The political constitution of the Philippine Republic established free and compulsory elementary education. It declared the freedom of any person to found an educational institution in conformity with the laws of the state. By declaring the freedom and equality of all religions and the separation of church and state, it freed the public schools from clerical control. These constitutional provisions conformed with the educational views of Filipino intellectuals and with the principles of modern democracy.

*The
Philippine
Republic
and
Education*

*Beginning
of
American
Educational
Effort*

The government of the Philippine Republic set aside in its budget for 1899 the sum of 35,468.00 pesos for public instruction.¹

Soon after the Americans arrived in the Philippines, they began to establish schools. When the Island of Corregidor fell into their hands in May, 1898, they immediately opened a school there. In Manila, shortly after it was occupied on August 13, 1898, the Americans reopened seven schools, assigning one teacher of English in each.² In June, 1899, an army officer, Lieutenant George D. Anderson, was appointed city superintendent of schools for Manila. In every other town they had captured, the Americans opened a school and taught English. In a proclamation to the Filipino people on August 14, 1898, Major General Wesley Merritt promised full protection of all educational institutions. The great obstacle in the way of the new educators was the outbreak of the war between the Philippine Republic and the United States. The Filipinos, despite their inferior forces, fought valiantly until the end of 1899. Even in that year peace was not fully restored, on account of the guerilla warfare which ensued and lasted until 1902.

The educational activities of the American conquerors began while the Philippine Republic was still in existence. They served to give to the American conquest the semblance of a

¹ Kalaw, Teodoro M.; *La Revolución Filipina*, Manila, 1924, p. 80.

² *Fifteenth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 9.

vast philanthropic endeavor. This generosity of the Americans is appreciated by the Filipinos.

Thus, within a few months after the proclamation of independence, the Filipino leaders had provided for the establishment of public schools from the lowest to the highest grade. Although the decrees mentioned were only of a temporary character they, nevertheless, outlined clearly the educational policy of the Philippine government, which was to extend education to the masses. This attitude toward so important a matter as education was a credit to the Filipino leaders of the time.

Conclusion

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PART II

EDUCATION DURING THE AMERICAN PERIOD, 1900-1930

The following chapters are devoted to an outline of the progress of education during the first three decades of the twentieth century under the guidance of the Americans. The beginning of American educational work has already been described in the last chapter. From the military régime to the present there has been considerable advance in educational work. The more significant features of this period will receive due attention in the following pages.

CHAPTER XV

ORGANIZATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1900-1910

The military government gave way to a quasi-civil government on March 16, 1900, by the appointment of the second Philippine Commission, composed of William H. Taft, Dean C. Worcester, Luke E. Wright, Henry C. Ide, and Bernard Moses.¹ To this second Philippine Commission belongs the credit of laying the foundation of the present school system. It enacted the organic school law of the Philippines, known as Act No. 74, which was drafted by Dr. Fred. W. Atkinson, then general superintendent of public instruction. Under its provisions a department of public instruction was created. Its head was called general superintendent of public instruction. It was given control of all the schools that had already been established and forbade the teaching of religion in the public schools—

The Organic School Act

Provided, however, that it shall be lawful for the priest or minister of any church established in the *pueblo* where a public school is situated, either in person or by a designated teacher of religion, to teach religion for one-half an hour three times a week in the school building to those public-school pupils whose parents or guardians desire it and express their desire therefor in writing filed with the principal teacher of the school to be forwarded to the division superintendent, who shall fix the hours and rooms for such teach-

¹ Malcolm; *The Government of the Philippine Islands*, Manila, 1916, p. 214.

ing. But no public-school teacher shall either conduct religious exercises or teach religion, or act as a designated religious teacher in the school building under the foregoing authority, and no pupil shall be required by any public-school teacher to attend and receive the religious instruction herein permitted. Should the opportunity thus given to teach religion be used by the priest, minister, or religious teacher for the purpose of arousing disloyalty to the United States, or of discouraging the attendance of pupils at such public school, or of creating a disturbance of public order, or of interfering with the discipline of the school, the division superintendent of public instruction, may, after due investigation and hearing, forbid such offending priest, minister, or religious teacher from entering the public school building thereafter.¹

*The Bureau
of Educa-
tion*

The organic school law was amended by subsequent acts, some of which were Acts Nos. 352, 373, 477, 672, 1137, 1407, and 1698. Act No. 477 substituted the name Bureau of Education for Department of Public Instruction and increased the number of school divisions from ten to thirty-six. The other acts placed the Bureau of Education under the Department of Public Instruction; created the offices of the director of education and his assistants; and provided that public elementary instruction shall be free. The enactment of these laws was indicative of the benevolent aims of the Philippine Commission. The first Philippine * Assembly, which met in 1907, showed much interest in popular education and, together with the Philippine Commission, passed more school laws, the most important of which were the Gabaldon Act appropriating 1,000,000 pesos

¹ *Annual Reports of the Department of the Interior, 1900, Vol. II, pp. 1330-1333.*

for barrio schools, and Act No. 1870 creating the University of the Philippines.¹

The Bureau of Education is under the control of the Department of Public Instruction, at the head of which is the secretary of public instruction, who is at the same time vice-governor of the Islands and an appointee of the President of the United States. This is the highest office in our public-school system and has always been filled by an American except, of course, when he is on leave, and the Filipino under-secretary of public instruction acts in his place temporarily. The bureau is administered by the director of education, the title which was substituted for general superintendent of education during the incumbency of Doctor David P. Barrows.² The director is appointed by the governor-general, with the approval of the Philippine Senate. He possesses extensive powers, such as to establish primary schools and night schools, to assign teachers and fix their salaries, prepare the curricula for all public schools under the bureau, attend to the construction of schoolhouses, hold normal institutes for teachers, and choose and recommend to the secretary of public instruction the men and women who shall fill the more important posts in the bureau.

Assisting the director there were two assistant directors; but, since 1921, one of the posts has been abolished and, instead, an official designated as assistant to the director was attached to the general office. The assistant

¹ Malcolm, *op. cit.*, p. 636.

² Doctor Barrows served from 1903 to 1909.

director is appointed by the governor-general, with the consent of the Philippine Senate. His office is in Manila. In recent years, in pursuance of the policy of "Filipinization"¹ of government offices, the post has been occupied by a Filipino.

The general office of the bureau is in Manila. Its personnel consists of the assistant to the director, the chiefs of the academic, industrial, agricultural, accounting, property, records, and clerical divisions, and a staff of technicians. It is a very busy office. It directs and supervises the multifarious educational activities of the bureau throughout the Islands.

For administrative purposes the Philippine Islands is divided into school divisions. From ten it has increased to forty-nine divisions, each under a division superintendent. The secretary of public instruction, upon recommendation of the director of education, appoints the division superintendents. The division superintendents are responsible to the director, however. They represent him in the provinces and send him written reports from time to time. Some of the duties of the division superintendent are to appoint municipal teachers and fix their salaries, determine the uses to which provincial and municipal schoolhouses shall be put, inspect regularly all the schools in his division, and enforce the orders from the director and the prescribed curricula for primary and secondary schools. He is expected to be familiar with the varied

¹ That is, filling the government posts with Filipinos.

details of academic and industrial instruction in his division. He deals with insular, provincial, and municipal officials as well as with the people. There are American and Filipino division superintendents. As a rule, only experienced and trained Filipino male teachers, who have been in the service for a number of years, are appointed to this post. The salary of a Filipino superintendent ranges from 2,400 to 6,000 pesos a year. The division superintendents hold a conference annually in Baguio, the summer capital of the Islands, for the discussion of school problems.

Assisting the division superintendent and directly responsible to him are the division supervisors. Generally, there are in every division one academic and one industrial supervisor. They are specialists in their respective lines. Some of the supervisors are women. Since 1925 the work of these supervisors has been stressed on account of the recognition by the bureau of the importance of supervision.

Besides the division supervisors, there are supervising teachers assisting the superintendent. Every school division is divided into districts. Each district, comprising one or more municipalities, is under a supervising teacher who is appointed by the secretary of public instruction upon recommendation of the director. He supervises all the schools in towns and barrios in his district. He represents the division superintendent and is responsible to him.

The secondary school in a division is administered by a principal who is appointed by the secretary of public instruction upon recommendation of the director. There are American and Filipino secondary-school principals. The Filipino principals are recruited from among the most capable and experienced teachers in the secondary schools. They are directly responsible to the division superintendent and, through him, to the director of education.

Another important school official in the field is the principal of the municipal central school. He is chosen by the division superintendent, but is directly under the supervising teacher. He is usually a man who enjoys local prestige and who can win the support of the townspeople and municipal officials.

Lastly, the bureau employs an army of classroom teachers whose number has been increasing in the course of years. Their training varies from that ending in an elementary school certificate to that ending in a doctorate; their compensation varies from 40.00 to 333.33 pesos a month. This subject will be discussed in another chapter.

The system of public schools under the Bureau of Education is highly centralized. Observers allege that this excessive centralization destroys the initiative of local school officials and places too much power in the hands of the director of education. On this point the director of education, in his sixteenth annual report, says:

While in theory the system here described is a highly centralized one, yet in practice teachers and superintendents enjoy much greater participation in educational affairs than in many other systems apparently much more democratic. New policies are rarely if ever determined upon without the fullest consultation with superintendents and teachers, and generally only after they have been considered at conventions and conferences. The fullest and freest discussion on the part of teachers is not only permitted, but encouraged; but the director of education decides when discussion shall give way to action. In any event, with school matters determined upon in this way, the director has at hand an organization which responds effectively and which executes the school policies without loss of time or effort. Superintendents and teachers owe allegiance to an organization which embraces the entire Archipelago, and there is a sense of loyalty to general educational aims which is often lacking, in some degree, in school systems that are entirely local in character. Furthermore, the closest attention has been paid to the customs and habits of thought of the people among whom the schools are established; and, while the unity of the system as a whole is maintained, the organization is flexible enough to adjust itself to local needs where conditions vary at all from those generally found.

The Bureau of Education is the publisher of many bulletins, outlines, textbooks, circulars, courses of study, and magazines which are sent out to the field from time to time. They are prepared at the general office. Lists of these publications are printed in the annual reports of the director of education. The first magazine published by the bureau was *The Philippine Craftsman*, the first number of which appeared in July, 1912. It printed articles and useful information regarding industrial edu-

cation. It was discontinued in May, 1917. The Bureau of Education also began the publication in 1922 of a newspaper for school children, entitled *School News Review*. It appears monthly during the school year and is distributed free of charge to public-school children. Since 1928 when 50,000 pesos became available, as provided in Act No. 3355 passed by the Philippine Legislature, the bureau has published a magazine for teachers, entitled *Philippine Public Schools*. This magazine is sent free of charge to school officials and teachers in the service. It has helped greatly in disseminating useful information to teachers.

In the Philippines, a public school is a school supported by the state. Since 1900 various types of public schools have been established. The lowest is the elementary school in the *barrios* (villages) and towns; then come the academic secondary schools, popularly known as high schools, in Manila and the provincial capitals; the vocational schools; the insular schools (that is, the Philippine Normal School, Philippine School of Arts and Trades, Central Luzon Agricultural School, and the Philippine Nautical School); the special schools which are the Philippine School of Commerce and School for the Deaf and the Blind; and the University of the Philippines, which is the state university. All these educational institutions are maintained by government funds. In the following pages more will be said about these schools.

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CHAPTR XVI

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION, 1900-1930

Aims

Primary instruction has become systematized since 1900, with definite objectives in view, in harmony with the requirements of modern democracy. Intended to prepare the great mass of the population for effective citizenship, primary instruction has been extended throughout the Islands in barrios and towns, from the Batanes Islands in the north to the Sulu Archipelago in the south. It is perhaps the greatest single undertaking of the Philippine government.

Evolution of the Ele- mentary Curriculum

The curriculum of primary schools has gone through many revisions. In the first years of the American régime the division superintendents were allowed to arrange the subjects for the primary grades, with instructions that the study of the English language should be given first place. The other subjects were reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history, physiology, nature study, music, drawing, physical exercise, and industrial work. Many textbooks in English were ordered translated into Spanish, in the erroneous belief that the Spanish language was widely understood in the Islands. When the Americans realized their mistake, American textbooks were used instead. Large quantities of school material were brought from the United States for the primary schools.

In regard to industrial work, division superintendents were allowed to choose either weaving, clay modelling, carving, or the like, whichever would be most suitable to the local conditions prevailing in their division. Girls and boys received different kinds of manual training. The girls were trained in house-keeping and sewing, and the boys in gardening or any other industrial work taught in their school. From the very beginning industrial work (or manual training, as it was better known) has been stressed in the primary schools.

The introduction of music and physical exercises in the primary school was appreciated by the Filipinos. The schools became an attractive and bright place. The large numbers of children who flocked to the elementary schools found school life very pleasant instead of the drudgery it had been during Spanish days.

The reading charts and textbooks, which were well printed and illustrated, were a novelty to the Filipinos, who had been accustomed to the repelling Spanish textbooks. Books, writing paper, slates and pencils were distributed free of charge to school children.

The length of the primary course during the period from 1904 to 1907 was three years. In view of the shortness of the course, only the essentials of the subjects mentioned above could be acquired by the pupils. It was hoped that primary instruction would eliminate illiteracy and equip the rising generation for the demands of every-day life.

The older boys and girls, those past the primary-school age, were given instruction in the elements of Philippine government and history.

In 1907, when the primary course was revised and lengthened to four years, the subjects of study were distributed as follows:¹

Grade I

Language (including conversation, reading, spelling, and writing), arithmetic, handiwork, such as stick-laying, paper-folding, paper-weaving, clay and sand work, games and music.

Grade II

Language, arithmetic, handiwork, music, drawing, writing, physical exercises.

Grade III

English; arithmetic; geography; industrial work, such as needlework, gardening, woodwork, pottery, weaving fans, baskets, hats, chairs, mats, etc.; music; drawing; writing; physical exercises.

Grade IV

English, nature study, civics, arithmetic, geography, physical exercises, industrial work such as elementary agriculture, domestic science, pottery, masonry, weaving, dyeing, bleaching, ropemaking, etc., writing, physiology, hygiene.

This course is richer than the three-year course by the addition of the subjects of civics, physiology, and hygiene. It is also to be noted that it prescribes more industrial work.

In 1912 the primary curriculum was revised again. Phonics was introduced in the first three grades, in order to improve the instruction in the English language. A course in good manners and right conduct was also added to the third and fourth grades. Sanitation

¹ Circular No. 51 of the Bureau of Education.

was substituted for physiology in the fourth grade.

The textbooks used have also been revised to suit the peculiar needs of Filipino children. Some were prepared by men and women who have had some experience in educational work in the Philippines.

In 1923 the Bureau of Education made some changes in the distribution of time in the primary course, while retaining all the subjects of study already mentioned. Every year the bureau attempts to improve elementary instruction as regards content and methods of teaching.

What may be termed the higher primary course is popularly called the intermediate course. In 1904, when the primary course comprised three years, it was also a three-year course above the primary. When the primary course was lengthened to four years in 1907, the intermediate course remained a three-year course, comprising the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. The complete elementary course at present comprises from the first to the seventh grades, inclusive.

The Intermediate Course

Originally, the intermediate course was intended for students who could remain in school beyond the primary course and, therefore, its content was merely an amplification of the subjects of study of the primary course. As outlined in 1904, the first year of the intermediate course, or the fourth grade, was devoted to English grammar and composition, reading, arithmetic, geography, plant study, music, drawing, agriculture for boys and housekeep-

ing and plain sewing for girls; the second year, or fifth grade, to English language and grammar, arithmetic, Philippine history, physical geography, music, drawing, animal life, agriculture for boys and housekeeping and sewing for girls; the last year or sixth grade to English grammar, arithmetic, reading, music, drawing, physiology, hygiene, and carpentry and iron work for boys and housekeeping and nursing for girls. Instruction in government and parliamentary procedure was given to all sixth-grade students.

A change in the objective and content of the intermediate course was effected in 1909. Six different courses were offered; the general course, the course in teaching, the course in farming, the trade course, the course in housekeeping and household industries, and the course in business. After completing the first four grades of the primary course the student might take any one of these courses. The last four courses were intended to prepare the student for some definite calling, and the general course was for those who wished to pursue higher academic studies. The subjects of study were distributed according to the following plans:¹

GENERAL COURSE

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, music, writing, drawing, industrial work.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, geography, drawing, industrial work.

¹ *Fifteenth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, pp. 61-63.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, history and government, physiology, hygiene, and sanitation, drawing, industrial work.

COURSE FOR TEACHING

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, music, writing, drawing, industrial work.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, geography, drawing, industrial work.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, physiology, hygiene and sanitation, history and government, school methods and management, practice teaching.

COURSE IN HOUSEKEEPING AND HOUSEHOLD ARTS

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, needlework, cooking and housekeeping, hygiene and home sanitation, ethics.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, needlework, cooking and housekeeping, hygiene and home sanitation, ethics.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, hygiene and sanitation, cooking and housekeeping, needlework, ethics.

TRADE COURSE

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, shopwork.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, shopwork.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, drawing, estimating, shopwork.

COURSE IN FARMING

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, agriculture, farmwork, carpentry, repair work.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, agriculture, farmwork, toolwork, blacksmithing.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, agriculture, drawing, farmwork, theory of agriculture, laboratory work.

COURSE IN BUSINESS

Grade V

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, geography, spelling and dictation, penmanship and plain lettering, typewriting.

Grade VI

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, geography, dictation, bookkeeping, typewriting.

Grade VII

Grammar and composition, reading and spelling, arithmetic, geography, business correspondence, bookkeeping, typewriting.

The teaching course in the intermediate grade was organized in order to meet the demand for teachers in the early years of the public-school system. In 1918, however, when higher-trained teachers became available, the course was discontinued.

The other vocational courses were retained because of the country's need for skilled artisans. Instruction in industrial subjects was stressed in all primary and intermediate schools. The industrial division of the general

office of the Bureau of Education was in charge of this important branch of public instruction.

The course in business was gradually abolished. By 1914 it was given in only one intermediate school.

The study of English is emphasized in all the intermediate courses, for it is the aim of the Bureau of Education to make English the common language of the Filipinos. A revision of the intermediate course in 1924 introduced improvements in the teaching of English. Conversational English and phonics, besides grammar and composition, were added to all the courses. Instruction in good manners and right conduct was stressed in all the grades of the intermediate courses. The study of civics was required in the fifth and sixth grades.

Since 1924 there has been no significant change in the curriculum of the elementary schools.

The first significant law, passed by the Philippine Assembly in 1907, was the Gabaldon Act, which appropriated the sum of 1,000,000 pesos for the construction of barrio schools. The legislature in 1910 passed another act, appropriating the same amount for the continuance of the Gabaldon scheme. One fourth of this amount became available in January, 1912. In order to help the municipalities build schoolhouses, the legislature set aside in 1910 the sum of 100,000 pesos. An additional sum of 135,000 pesos was appropriated by the legislature in 1913 for aid to municipal governments in the construction of central and intermediate

*Legislation
affecting
Elementary
Instruction*

school buildings, and 250,000 pesos for the construction of permanent barrio schoolhouses.

In addition to insular expenditures for elementary instruction, the municipal governments also made appropriations for schools. In 1914 the total amount expended by municipalities for the support of elementary schools was approximately 2,234,142.66 pesos. Municipalities also received, from time to time, voluntary contributions from private individuals in the form of money, building materials, and land for school sites. The following figures show the amount of these voluntary contributions:

SCHOOL YEAR.	TOTAL AMOUNT. PESOS.
1916-1917	478,802.61
1917-1918	617,399.77
1918-1919	682,549.58
1919-1920	799,537.84
1920-1921	1,347,124.34
1921-1922	1,498,110.63
1922-1923	1,191,059.26
1923-1924	1,354,589.12
1924-1925	1,330,803.38
1925-1926	1,455,275.84

The collection of voluntary contributions for the maintenance of elementary schools was prohibited by the governor-general in December, 1926, upon recommendation of the Bureau of Education. It was regarded as unfair and subject to abuse. Many complaints from parents and guardians about the collection of voluntary contributions were received by the bureau.

In 1918 the Philippine Legislature again came to the aid of elementary schools by pass-

ing an act appropriating 30,705,824 pesos for the extension of free elementary education. The sum was distributed over a period of five years, beginning with the year 1919, when 735,000 pesos became available. With this fund 136 new primary schools were opened, payment for tuition in the intermediate schools was abolished, and 2,963 new primary teachers were employed. In 1920, the sum of 3,919,000 pesos was expended out of the total fund for the opening of new elementary schools and the maintenance of those already established. The average salary of municipal primary-school teachers was also increased 52 per centum. There was a large increase in the number of school buildings, and 261,768 more children were admitted to the primary schools. In 1921, the sum of 6,305,400 pesos was expended from the 30,000,000-peso fund, enabling the bureau to open 646 new primary schools. However, in 1922, on account of the financial depression, only the sum of 7,047,828.60 pesos instead of 8,710,440 pesos was available from the fund, and this amount was used for the maintenance of existing schools. In 1923, when the last instalment of 11,035,984 pesos became due, only the sum of 7,047,828 pesos was available, on account of the continued financial depression. Thus, in 1922 and 1923 there was no extension of elementary education, as had been contemplated in 1918 when the act was passed. The shortage of funds made it necessary to collect voluntary contributions, in order that the elementary schools might be kept open. In 1926, however, the collection of voluntary

contributions was forbidden and the insular government made an additional appropriation of 1,000,000 pesos for 1927 for the maintenance of elementary schools. The latest legislative enactment for the extension of primary instruction was passed in 1929, creating the 700,000-peso fund for the opening and maintenance of barrio schools.

*Enrollment
in the
Primary
Schools*

Since 1901 there has been marked increase in the enrollment in the public primary schools. The figures given below offer conclusive proof of the gradual extension of elementary instruction from 1901 to 1929.¹

Year.	Annual enrollment.
1901	150,000
1902	200,000
1903	182,302
1904	263,974
1905	357,262
1906	372,465
1907	366,500
1908	485,033
1909	549,607
1910	584,234
1911	607,089
1912	525,653
1913	434,824
1914	614,592
1915	581,645
1916	638,548.
1917	648,781
1918	654,845
1919	759,448
1920	916,613
1921	1,045,330

¹ The figures are taken from official reports of the secretary of public instruction and the director of education.

1922	1,063,926
1923	1,087,732
1924	1,077,186
1925	1,041,395
1926	1,002,187
1927	1,035,204
1928	1,040,949
1929	1,059,987

It is hoped that the progress of elementary instruction will eliminate illiteracy throughout the country, by giving to every child an opportunity to attend the public primary schools.

One of the recurring problems of elementary schools is the financial one. The support of elementary schools comes from the insular government, the municipalities and, until 1926, voluntary contributions. Approximately 64 per centum of the elementary-school fund comes from the insular treasury. This has been the only stable source of support of primary schools. The municipal-school funds are derived from real-property taxes and internal-revenue allotments. They are generally insufficient to cover the municipalities' share in school expenditures. On account of the inability of municipalities to maintain elementary schools in 1927-1928, many schools were not reopened and 64,449 children were refused admission.¹ In order to help these municipalities, the insular legislature appropriated the sum of 300,000 pesos as an emergency aid. The Bureau of Education claims that the shortage of funds prevents it from carrying out its program for the improvement of elementary instruction.

*Problems
of Primary
Instruction*

¹ *Twenty-Eighth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 15.

Yearly there is an increasing number of children demanding admission to the public elementary schools. Consequently, there is need of augmenting the school fund yearly to accommodate these children.

The language of instruction since American occupation has been English. The use of this foreign language in the elementary grades has been questioned by some critics. They allege that the local dialects should be employed instead, in as much as the completion of the primary course is not sufficient to enable the graduates to use the English language. Hence, they would prefer to devote the time of the pupils to the acquisition of the content of primary instruction. However, the Bureau of Education has not deemed it proper to make any change in its policy of stressing the teaching of the English language, from the lowest to the highest grade. The private schools have also followed the same policy.

The need for more libraries for the primary schools has been emphasized by the director of education in his annual reports. This is in line with the policy of improving primary instruction by cultivating among the pupils the habit of reading in the English language.

Another problem of primary instruction concerns the teaching staff. It is the aim of the Bureau of Education to employ only trained teachers; but the inability of the municipalities to pay adequate salaries has been a great obstacle in securing the services of able teachers.

In 1924 the insular legislature appropriated money for a survey of the public-school system.

The services of Doctor Paul Monroe, an American authority on education were secured. The survey was completed in May, 1925, and a report was submitted to the legislature.

The survey board favored the use of English as a medium of instruction, thus supporting the policy of the Bureau of Education. It also commended the achievements of elementary instruction, but pointed out certain defects, some of which are the following:¹

1. Textbooks are not well adapted to the needs of the pupils and, as they are adopted for a period of five years, no substitution can be made immediately upon the appearance of better texts.

2. There is an attempt to do too much work in a short time. The Philippine elementary course attempts to cover almost the same amount of work, with an additional amount of industrial work, in seven years as the American elementary school covers in eight years.

3. The emphasis upon uniformity makes it difficult to adapt the work of individual schools to the conditions and needs of their communities.

4. The forms of study by which the requirements of the curriculum are met are in most subjects bookish and artificial.

5. The curriculum has the appearance of being made for the teachers and supervisors, and not by them.

6. Children are not given much opportunity for initiative or for participation in activities which are educative.

7. The curriculum does not persistently suggest the use of maps and other illustrative or helpful teaching materials in definite unit work where such helps are important.

¹ *A Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands*, 1925, Ch. II.

8. There is shortage of reference books, maps, and other teaching materials in most schools. When such materials, are on hand they are not used very frequently.

9. There is almost entire absence of correlation of subjects. The curriculum does not show the relationship of different subjects to the problems or situations of life and environment to which they are common.

10. Teachers waste their time. There is no flexibility. If a lesson is finished before the end of the period, the time is spent in merely reviewing and restating what has already been accomplished.

The secretary of public instruction, upon request of the Philippine Legislature, commented on the criticisms and recommendations of the survey commission.¹ He explained that some of the defects noted by the survey board were precisely the problems which the Bureau of Education has been trying to solve for many years. The adaptation of the curriculum, for instance, is a process that requires time and study; and the present curriculum has been really the result of the process of adaptation. He stressed to the legislature the need for more men in the Bureau of Education in order that the recommendations of the survey commission might be carried out.

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Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands, 1925, undertaken by a commission headed by Doctor Paul Monroe.

CHAPTER XVII
THE TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL
TEACHERS, 1900-1930

One of the important functions of the Bureau of Education is the training of elementary-school teachers. At the beginning of the American régime, American teachers were assigned to the primary schools, because there were no Filipino teachers who could speak the English language. The need for teachers was so urgent that, as soon as qualified Filipinos learned a little English they were appointed as teachers of primary instruction. The American teachers were appointed as division superintendents, supervisors, and intermediate and high-school teachers.

The Philippine Normal School

In order to train Filipino teachers of primary instruction, the bureau organized the Philippine Normal School in Manila in 1901. Branches of this school were established in 1902 in Nueva Cáceres, Cebú, Iloilo, Vigan, and Cagayan de Misamis. After a few years these provincial normal schools were converted into regular high schools.

At the beginning several courses of study which did not properly belong to a normal school had to be offered in the Philippine Normal School, because of the lack of academic preparation of the students. Moreover, the normal school admitted students who were not preparing to teach. There were students who were seeking a general education or preparing

themselves for entrance in colleges and universities in the United States. In 1908 only 60 students were enrolled in the teaching course. The number increased to 102 in 1909.

In 1903 the length of the teaching course was four years. To be admitted, one must be at least fourteen years of age and a graduate of an intermediate school. In the first year the subjects of study were English, arithmetic, drawing, music, and United States History; in the second year, English, arithmetic, geography, nature study, physiology and hygiene; in the third year, English, arithmetic, geography, algebra, general history, and botany; in the fourth year, English, algebra, United States history, physics, and professional training.

A reorganization of the normal course was undertaken in 1910. The non-teaching courses were abolished and the normal course was strengthened. The training department, in which students in the third year practiced teaching, was enlarged by being made a regular primary and intermediate school. The home-economics department was reorganized; an industrial department was established; and athletics and physical training were emphasized.

Since 1910 the standard of the normal school has been gradually raised. In 1916 the entrance requirements were changed. Students must have completed the first year of the secondary course, be at least sixteen years of age, and must sign a contract to teach for one year after graduation. Since 1918 students have

been required to agree to teach after graduation for as many years as they spend in the normal school.

In 1925 a new curriculum was adopted in the normal school. It comprised a two-year course for graduates of academic secondary schools, a four-year course for those who had completed the second year of the secondary school, a two-year home-economics course for graduates of the secondary home-economics course; and a four-year home-economics course for those who had completed the second year of the secondary school.¹ The Philippine Normal School's chief aim, beginning with that year, was to train principals, supervising teachers, and demonstration or model teachers for the elementary schools, and critic teachers for provincial normal schools. In other words, its aim is to turn out leaders in the field of elementary instruction, leaving it to the provincial normal schools to furnish classroom teachers. The two-year course for principals and supervising teachers, which was introduced in 1918, was discontinued, and the subjects of study of that course were included in the four-year course.

A further reorganization of the normal-school curriculum was undertaken in 1928. The four-year course was abandoned. Completion of the secondary course was made the entrance requirement. In addition, applicants had to take the intelligence tests, and only

¹ The courses of study are printed in the *Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education*, pp. 109-111.

those who obtained a certain rating were admitted. The high entrance requirements have been made possible by the increasing number of applicants every year. With these changes the insular normal school has been raised to the level of a college of education.

The normal-school curriculum was enriched in 1929 by the addition of courses in health education and in expression. The health-education course is in harmony with the health program which has been adopted by the Bureau of Education. The course in expression is intended to improve the teaching of English by emphasizing oral expression.

The following are the latest courses of study in the insular normal school:¹

TWO-YEAR GENERAL CURRICULUM FOR PROVINCIAL NORMAL GRADUATES

First Year

English V, principles of education, library methods, nature study, classroom tests. Electives: Algebra, music II, drawing II, cooking, child study, history of education.

Second Year

English VI, health, expression, geography III, observation, teaching. Electives: Geometry, physics, supervision, administration, tests and measurements, chemistry of foods, dietetics, home-economics methods, English, history, educational sociology.

THREE-YEAR COMBINED CURRICULUM

First Year

English V, reading, music, drawing, cooking I, sewing I, educational psychology, child study.

¹ *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, pp. 70-73.

Second Year

English VI, needlework, home-economics methods, principles of teaching, sewing II, geography, commercial geography, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Third Year

Language, educational measurements, dietetics, home nursing, arithmetic, physiology, cooking II. Electives: Teaching, principles of education.

This course is intended for graduates of academic secondary schools. Upon its completion the graduate receives both the home-economics and the general-course diplomas.

TWO-AND-ONE-HALF YEAR HOME-ECONOMICS CURRICULUM

First Year

English V, reading, sewing I, music, drawing, cooking I, needlework.

Second Year

English VI, cooking II, home-economics methods, educational psychology, sewing II, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Third Year

Physiology, commercial geography, dietetics, home nursing, industrial arithmetic, teaching.

TWO-YEAR GENERAL CURRICULUM

First Year

English V, educational psychology, reading, principles of teaching, drawing or music, arithmetic, observation and participation.

Second Year.

English VI, language, geography, child study, educational measurements, principles of education One elective: Physiology, school supervision, music I, or expression. One elective: History of education, school administration, drawing II, library methods, or educational sociology.

This course is for graduates of academic secondary schools.

TWO-YEAR HOME-ECONOMICS CURRICULUM

First Year

English V, reading, drawing, educational psychology, home-economics methods, sewing II, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Second Year

English VI, commercial geography, physiology, cooking II, dietetics, music, industrial arithmetic, teaching.

This course is designed for graduates of the secondary home-economics course.

The Philippine Normal School is headed by a superintendent who is appointed by the secretary of public instruction upon recommendation of the director of education. The post has always been held by Americans who have had considerable experience in school administration.

The insular normal school is coeducational. Its annual enrollment is over 1,000. In 1928, it was 1,193; in 1929, 1,571.

The graduates of the insular normal school have always been in demand. They easily find employment after graduation.

In order to increase the supply of trained teachers for the elementary schools, regional normal schools have been organized. They are found in the provinces distant from Manila, where the insular normal school is located. In 1926 nine provincial normal schools were functioning; namely, the Ilocos Norte Provincial Normal School at Laoag, Ilocos Norte; Ilocos Sur Provincial Normal School at Vigan, Ilocos Sur; Albay Provincial Normal School at Legaspi, Albay; Iloilo Provincial Normal School at Iloilo, Iloilo; Cebú Provincial Normal School at Cebú, Cebú; Camarines Sur Provincial Nor-

*Provincial
Normal
Schools*

mal School at Naga, Camarines Sur; Bayambang Provincial Normal School at Bayambang, Pangasinan; Zamboanga Provincial Normal School at Zamboanga, Zamboanga; and the Vocational High School at Lingayen, Pangasinan.

These schools offer the four-year normal course as follows: ¹

First Year

Literature, composition, United States history and government, current events, arithmetic, music, writing, physical education.

Second Year

Literature and composition, reading, general history, current events, drawing, industrial education, physical education.

Third Year

Literature and composition, biology, general history, oriental history, current events, elementary educational psychology, principles of teaching, geography, observation and participation, physical education.

Fourth Year

Literature and composition, economics, Philippine history and government, current events, health education, language, practice teaching, physical education.

The course of instruction is patterned after that of the Philippine Normal School.

The ~~monthly~~ ^{yearly} enrollment in the eight provincial normal schools, excluding the Vocational High School at Lingayen, was as follows:

1925	3,076 ²
1926	3,634 ²

¹ *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 67.

² *Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 22.

1927	3,923 ¹
1928	4,102 ²

In the academic year 1929-1930 the annual enrollment in these schools was 4,492.³ The improvement in the professional training of elementary teachers which, according to the director of education, has become noticeable since the organization of these provincial normal schools, fully justifies their establishment.

These schools are supported by provincial funds. The bureau has encountered no little difficulty in conducting these schools, for the reason that it has no power to determine in advance the amount of money the provincial governments will appropriate for their maintenance. The bureau is seeking to correct this anomaly.

In recent years the bureau has deemed it advisable to introduce normal courses in some secondary schools so that secondary students who wish to teach after graduation may acquire some professional training. In 1920 there were five secondary schools offering normal courses. By 1928 the number of these schools had increased to nine; namely, Agusan High School, Cagayan High School, Capiz High School, Leyte High School, Misamis High School, Mountain High School, Nueva Vizcaya High School, Samar High School, and Tarlac High School. In 1929, for lack of funds, the normal course in the Agusan High School had

*Normal
Course in
Secondary
Schools*

¹ *Twenty-Eight Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 30.

² *Twenty-Ninth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 42.

³ *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 30.

to be discontinued. The annual enrollment in these normal courses in 1928 was 1,649 and in 1929, 1,946.¹ Graduates of the normal course are always preferred for filling vacancies in the elementary schools.

The normal curriculum in the secondary schools is the same as the normal course in the regional normal schools. In some of them only the first two years of the normal course are offered.

Beginning with the year 1926, some secondary schools were authorized to offer optional courses in elementary educational psychology and principles of teaching in the third year, and physiology, hygiene, and sanitation, or methods of reading and observation of teaching in the fourth year. The aim of the bureau in offering these courses was to increase the supply of trained teachers for towns which cannot secure the services of a normal-school graduate. According to the *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*,² these courses are offered in eight provincial high schools; namely, Cagayan High School, Capiz High School, Leyte High School, Misamis High School, Mountain High School, Misamis High School, Samar High School, and Tarlac High School.

*In-Service
Training of
Elementary
Teachers*

The training of elementary teachers does not end with their graduation from the normal schools. The bureau has devised several ways of continuing their training while they remain in the service. Once a year, during the long

¹ *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 30.

² Page 30.

vacation, April and May, they are encouraged to attend vocational normal schools. The bureau conducts these schools for teachers in the service in Manila, Baguio, Cebú, and Zamboanga. The enrollment at these vocational normal schools has been very encouraging. It indicates the interest of the teachers in self-improvement. In 1928 a total of 3,644 teachers attended these schools; in 1929, the number increased to 4,683.¹ A feature of the vocational normal schools is the organization of demonstration classes for observation purposes. Here new methods of teaching are shown to the teachers.

Another agency for in-service training is the division normal institute, held during the first three weeks of every academic year. It is intended for the elementary teachers of the division. The courses given in the institute embrace all the subjects of study in the elementary school. Methods of teaching are stressed and demonstrated by the best teachers in the division.

During the school year, in some divisions, district institutes from three to six days long are held by the superintendent, principally for the benefit of new teachers. They offer an opportunity to correct some of the defects of elementary instruction observed in the first half of the year.

The supervisors of elementary schools are expected to observe the work of the teachers and to offer constructive suggestions. The bu-

¹ *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 37.

reau recognizes the importance of appointing well-trained teachers as supervisors, because these school officials help greatly in improving elementary instruction.

Teachers in the service are, moreover, required to read a certain number of professional books during the year. The division superintendent sends out lists of books, from which teachers select their readings.

*Teaching
Load*

The elementary-school teacher in the Philippine public schools begins her daily school work at about seven o'clock in the morning. She fills the blackboard with model letters, carefully written words, and artistically drawn illustrations. On her desk she arranges several objects which will be needed in the day's lesson. The morning session usually lasts until eleven o'clock. She returns to school at about one o'clock, remaining there until about four or five in the afternoon. She takes home with her papers to be corrected and returned to the pupils the next day. The teacher's evening is generally spent in this task. Thus, school work requires practically all the waking hours of the teacher. The elementary-school teacher is by far the most overworked employee in the government service.

*Salaries of
Elementary-
School
Teachers*

In 1903 Filipino elementary-school teachers were paid very little. The men received 16 pesos a month and the women, 12 pesos. The Americans followed the practice current during the Spanish era of paying women less than men. The majority of the teachers were paid by the municipal governments. Such teachers were designated municipal teachers, and those

who were paid from insular funds were referred to as insular teachers. The insular teachers generally received higher salaries, in consideration of their better preparation. Their salaries have been increased gradually. Before 1912, a Filipino insular teacher received about 40 pesos a month. The increase in monthly salary of the insular teacher since 1918 is shown in the Table 3.¹

TABLE 3.
Salary of Insular Teachers.

DATE	REGULAR	TEMPORARY
	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
March, 1918	66.33	50.05
March, 1919	70.67	54.71
March, 1920	75.97	60.24
March, 1921	89.92	69.62
March, 1922	98.42	77.66
March, 1923	105.78	82.82

The salaries of municipal teachers have also been increased. In 1912 municipal teachers received about 20 pesos a month. Table 4 shows the gradual increase in monthly salary of a municipal teacher since 1918:²

TABLE 4.
Salary of Municipal Teachers.

DATE	REGULAR	TEMPORARY
	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
March, 1918	26.28	24.97
March, 1919	31.42	29.58
March, 1920	39.21	35.41
March, 1921	43.44	37.85
March, 1922	44.11	39.10
March, 1923	47.53	44.55

¹*Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, p. 18.

²*Supra.*

In 1923 a new schedule of salaries for all Filipino teachers was adopted by the Bureau of Education. Whenever funds are available the schedule is followed. In 1927 the legislature fixed the minimum salary of municipal teachers at 40 pesos a month; but the average salary of the municipal teachers then was higher than the minimum.

*Teachers'
Pension*

Recognizing the inadequacy of teachers' emoluments, the Philippine Legislature passed a law in 1922, entitled Teachers' Pension Law,¹ providing for an annuity for teachers serving in the public schools under the Bureau of Education. The pension fund is formed by a direct contribution of the government of three per centum of the total sum appropriated annually for teachers' salaries, three per centum of the monthly salary of every employee who is entitled to pension, and all the money resulting from fines, leaves of absence without pay, and unfilled positions. This fund is intrusted to the Pension and Investment Board, composed of the secretary of public instruction, director of education, insular treasurer, insular auditor, director of civil service, and three other persons appointed by the governor-general with the consent of the senate. The board is empowered to invest the portion of the fund not needed for current payments. A teacher who has served for twenty years receives a pension of four tenths of her average salary for the last three years of service; for twenty-three years of service, one half of the average salary;

¹ Known as Act. No. 3050. It was amended in 1923 by Act No. 3100.

for twenty-six years, six tenths of the average salary; for twenty-nine, seven tenths of the average salary; and for thirty-two or more years, eight tenths of the average salary. Upon reaching the age of sixty five years and after having rendered service for eighteen years, a teachers may also retire with pension. The pensions are lifelong, and, under certain conditions, half of the pension may be paid upon the death of the pensioner to his surviving heirs, for not more than ten years.

Since the promulgation of this act a number of Filipino teachers has been retired with pension.

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The annual reports of the director of education contain the more important facts concerning the training of elementary-school teachers.

CHAPTER XVIII

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION, 1900-1930

*Organiza-
tion*

The organization of public secondary schools was part of the plan of the new government to endow the Philippines with a complete system of public schools, from the lowest to the highest grade. The need for schools of this type was keenly felt by those who had finished the elementary course in the government schools and wished to continue their studies. The secondary schools which were then in existence were private and nearly all under the control of the church.

*The Law of
March 7,
1902*

This law placed the secondary school under the provincial government, as far as financial support was concerned. However, in view of the precarious condition of the provincial treasuries, it was provided that the salaries of the teachers should be paid by the insular government until the provinces should be able to bear all the expense of maintaining the secondary schools. The supervision of the high schools was intrusted to the division superintendent of schools.

A wide range of subjects was ordered taught in the provincial high schools at the beginning. There were courses in commerce, teaching, agriculture, arts and crafts, literature, history, and the sciences. They were intended to give the student some useful training as well as a liberal education. The original secondary course, therefore, provided for vocational and

academic instruction. Later, the vocational courses were dropped, one by one, and the academic course alone remained and received much emphasis. In recent years the vocational courses were revived.

The course of study in the secondary schools has undergone frequent revision since 1902 in an attempt to make it more suitable to the needs of Filipino students.

*The
Academic
Course*

From the beginning, however, the length of the academic secondary course has been four years. Completion of the intermediate course was the requirement for entrance. The subjects of study were English literature and rhetoric, algebra, geometry, advanced arithmetic, botany, zoology, physical geography, geology, physics, economics, Spanish, and Latin.

In 1910 these subjects were distributed as follows:

First Year

English composition, rhetoric, and literature, history, algebra, botany, Latin or Spanish.

Second Year

English composition, rhetoric, and literature, general history, algebra, zoology and agriculture, Latin or Spanish.

Third Year

English composition, rhetoric, and literature, American history, plane geometry, physical geography and geology, Latin or Spanish.

Fourth Year

English composition, rhetoric, and literature, colonial government and administration, economics, physics.

In 1911 some changes were made. Zoology, agriculture, trigonometry, and geology were eliminated. The time devoted to these subjects

was distributed among the remaining studies. Two new subjects were introduced, commercial geography and civil government. The object of the revision was to lighten the course and make it more practical.

In 1912 and 1914 the course was again revised. Biology was prescribed in the third year. Physical education was also made a part of the course. Military drill was afterwards required of the boys. Later, the study of current events, Philippine history, and economic conditions in the Philippines was introduced. In 1923 two optional subjects were offered, Spanish and music. Latin was dropped.

The academic secondary course in 1929 was as follows:

First Year

English literature and composition, United States history and government, current events, algebra, physical education.

Second Year

English literature and composition, general science, general history, current events, geometry, physical education.

Third Year

English literature and composition, current events, advanced algebra, review of arithmetic, physical education.

Fourth Year

English literature and composition, economic conditions in the Philippines, Philippine history and government, current events, physics, physical education.

The introduction of Philippine history and government in the secondary curriculum is the answer to the repeated demand of Filipino leaders to nationalize the schools. This modern course of study no longer shows the influence

of classicism. It teaches only those subjects that are regarded necessary to an individual living in the present materialistic age.

Secondary textbooks during the early years were imported from the United States and were not specially prepared for Filipino students. Gradually, Philippine material was added to texts in physical geography, biology, commercial geography, colonial history, economic history, and United States history. An advisory textbook committee was created in 1913.

Textbooks

In 1921, by legislative enactment, a Philippine textbook board was created.¹ It was composed of the chairman of the committee on public instruction of the Philippine Senate, the chairman of the committee on public instruction of the Philippine House of Representatives, the president of the University of the Philippines, the director of education, and a member appointed by the governor-general. In 1930, the membership of this board was changed.² The board is assisted by the advisory textbook committee composed of technical men—five Americans and six Filipinos—designated by the director of education. The board chooses the textbooks for the public schools once every five years.

Since 1910 secondary pupils have been required to buy their textbooks. Prior to that year textbooks were distributed free of charge.

¹ Act No. 2957, approved February 19, 1921.

² The board is now composed of the under-secretary of public instruction (chairman), the secretary of finance, the director of education, and two appointed members.

The official texts used in the public academic secondary schools in 1930 are listed below:¹

First Year

Longfellow, *Evangeline*. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Bureau of Education, *Philippine Prose and Poetry*.

Lewis, Holic, and Bermejo, *New Practical English for High Schools*. American Book Co.

Burnham and Melencio, *A History of the United States*. The John C. Winston Co.

Hawkes, Luby, and Touton, *First Course in Algebra*. Ginn & Co.

Finch, *Every-day Civics, Philippine Edition*. American Book Co.

For silent reading and extensive reading:

The Silent Readers, Seventh Reader, by Lewis and Rowland, or *The Rizal Reader, First Year Reader*, by Lewis, Rowland, and Carreon. The John C. Winston Co.

Story Hour Readings, Seventh Year, by Hartwell. American Book Co.

Second Year

Edited by R. P. St. John, *Selections from Irving's Sketch Book*. American Book Co.

Arnold, *Sohrab and Rustum*. Ginn & Co.

Bureau of Education, *Selected Short Poems*.

Lewis, Holic, and Bermejo, *New Practical English for High Schools*. American Book Co.

Hunter, Whitman, and Herold, *Civic Science in Home and Community*. American Book Co.

Elson, *Modern Times and the Living Past*. American Book Co.

Hart and Feldman, *Plane Geometry*. American Book Co.

Third Year

Edited by Parrot and Long, *English Poems from Chaucer to Kipling*. Ginn & Co.

¹ *Twenty-Ninth Annual Report of the Director of Education*, pp. 106, 107.

Edited by Mary McKittrick, *Silas Marner*. American Book Co.

Shakespeare, *The Merchant of Venice*. Ginn & Co.

Brooks, *English Composition, Book Two*. American Book Co.

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Methods of Teaching

The memorizing method, which prevailed in secondary schools during the Spanish era, has been abandoned. It has been replaced by the latest pedagogical methods of instruction. Teachers are required to prepare lesson plans and to ask pupils thought-provoking questions. The project method has also found its way into the secondary school and has helped to vitalize the subjects of study. Further to improve classroom instruction, the size of the class has been limited. The median number of students in classes in secondary schools is now 42. By means of careful supervision, defects in the teaching method of individual teachers are promptly remedied.

The system of examination is entirely different from the Spanish. The written examination has replaced the oral in the new system. In 1925 the system was revised. The final examination was abolished. Instead, frequent tests were given during the year. The traditional essay type of examination was replaced by the objective type. The educational measurement and research section of the academic division of the Bureau of Education, which was organized in 1924, has prepared

guides for the use of local school officials in constructing objective tests. This section of the bureau has also conducted tests to measure the achievement and progress of instruction, in both elementary and secondary schools. It is obvious that the Bureau of Education is keeping pace with the modern scientific tendency in education.

Practically every public school in the Philippines is equipped with a library. The secondary schools are provided with comfortable reading rooms and bookshelves as well as trained librarians. The students are encouraged to use the library. The extension of library facilities is fostering the reading habit among the school population. The number of school libraries as well as their size has shown a gradual increase in the course of years. In 1928 there were 118 secondary-school libraries; in 1929, there were 119. The number of volumes in all the secondary-school libraries in 1928 was 353,034; in 1929, it had increased to 408,585.

Libraries

Biological and physical laboratories are now to be found in the secondary schools. Natural science is no longer taught solely from a textbook, but is explained in modern school laboratories.

*Scientific
Equipment*

The secondary schools have not neglected to cultivate the æsthetic sense of their students. There are glee clubs and orchestras composed of students under the direction of faculty members. They serve to enliven school life and exert a wholesome influence upon the community.

*Music
Instruction*

*Dramatic
Clubs*

In some secondary schools there are dramatic clubs, formed by students. From time to time they give dramatic performances which are well patronized by the public. Aside from the entertainment they give, they are an effective aid in the teaching of English.

Athletics

Secondary schools organize athletic teams after the American fashion. The school authorities encourage athletics and the holding of athletic contests. The public has shown much interest in the athletic activities of the secondary schools.

Teachers

The first secondary teachers were Americans, many of whom had served in the army and had no teaching experience. It was necessary to recruit American teachers in the United States, because of the lack of qualified Filipino teachers who could speak the English language. The difficulty was to secure trained American teachers who would be willing to remain two or more years in the service. Too often the American teachers who have come to the Philippines were led by a spirit of adventure and curiosity, without any intention of staying in the service. The tropical climate and different living conditions have been advanced as the chief causes of restlessness among American teachers.

From the beginning of the establishment of secondary schools, it has been planned to train Filipinos for secondary instruction. The foundation of a state university and the government policy of sending Filipino students to the United States helped to solve the problem of teachers for the secondary schools. In recent

years private teacher-training schools have also increased the supply of Filipino teachers. With a large number of trained Filipino teachers, American teachers have become unnecessary except in teaching the English language.

The increase in the supply of trained Filipino teachers has enabled the Bureau of Education to raise the qualifications of teachers in the secondary schools. At the time of writing the secondary-school teacher must have completed at least four years of college work, including pedagogical courses; that is, he must hold the bachelor of science in education diploma.

Preference is given to the graduates of colleges of education. Graduates of other colleges, such as liberal arts, agriculture, engineering, veterinary science, are also appointed when there are not enough education graduates. Once in the service, the teachers are encouraged to buy and read professional books for their own advancement and the improvement of secondary instruction.

In the choice of secondary teachers there has never been any discrimination on account of sex. Men and women have received equal compensation and have been given equal opportunities.

As in the case of the primary-school teachers, the secondary teachers are appointed either as insular or as provincial teachers, and temporary or permanent. The insular teachers receive their pay from the insular funds and the provincial, from the provincial funds. The

temporary teacher may become a permanent teacher by passing a civil service examination.

The salaries of secondary teachers depend upon their nationality. If they are Americans they receive a minimum salary of 250 pesos a month; if Filipinos, 100. The promotion of Filipino teachers has been very slow. Like the teachers of primary instruction, they are also entitled to a pension. It is the consensus that Filipino teachers in secondary schools are inadequately renumerated.

*The
Principal*

Each secondary school is directly under a principal teacher who is chosen for his executive ability, professional training, and experience, by the director of education. He executes the circulars and orders from the Bureau of Education; he is responsible for the smooth running of the school and the care and improvement of the premises; he settles disputes among students and teachers; he must preside at teachers' meetings; he is required to write an annual report and other reports requested by the director of education from time to time; he is required to teach from two to five academic periods daily. In a high school with less than six teachers, he must teach five periods; with seven to twelve teachers, four periods; with thirteen to eighteen teachers, three periods; and with nineteen or more teachers, two periods.

Americans, until recent years, filled all secondary-school principalships; but the policy of "Filipinization" has led to the appointment of Filipinos to these posts. In 1928 out of 53 secondary-school principals, 24 were Filipinos.

One of the important problems of secondary instruction is finance. It was the intention of the law authorizing the opening of secondary schools to make the provincial government bear all the expenses of the secondary school. However, the insular government has been paying the salaries of teachers, on account of the inability of the provincial governments to shoulder all the expenses. This insular aid is gradually being withdrawn. In 1929 less than 10 per centum of insular teachers were in the provincial high schools. The provincial secondary schools in 1923 cost the government 2,416,868 pesos, an amount which was approximately 10 per centum of the total expenditure for public education in that year. The annual cost of secondary instruction per pupil is 50 pesos.

*Cost of
Secondary
Instruction*

Recommendations for increasing provincial funds have been made by the director of education from time to time. One of these is that tuition fees be collected. By 1926 thirty-three high schools charged tuition fees ranging from 4 to 25 pesos a year. Another recommendation which has been made repeatedly is that a provincial school fund be created by levying special taxes and setting aside for school purposes at least 25 per centum of the total provincial income. It goes without saying that further improvement in secondary instruction depends largely upon increase of school funds.

The public secondary schools have always been coeducational. The number of girls has been relatively small. From 1903 to 1913 the

Enrollment

proportion of girls was 15.7; from 1913 to 1923, the proportion increased to 32.5. Table 5 below shows the secondary school enrollment by sexes at intervals from 1903 to 1929:

TABLE 5.
Enrollment in the Public Secondary Schools.

Year.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1903	357	93	450
1908	1,084	240	1,324
1913	4,005	748	4,753
1918	11,974	3,394	15,368
1919	11,588	3,888	15,476
1920	12,623	4,732	17,355
1921	16,608	6,824	23,432
1922	21,800	9,711	31,511
1923	26,435	12,749	39,184
1924	31,115	16,304	47,419
1925	34,440	18,641	53,081
1926	36,268	21,099	57,367
1927	38,138	23,720	62,315
1928	42,235	26,400	68,635
1929	45,526	28,937	74,463

There has been a notable increase in the number of boys and girls receiving secondary instruction. This fact has inevitably created additional school problems.

Graduates

The number of pupils graduating from the public secondary schools in different years is indicated by the following figures:

Year.	Graduates.
1906-1907	3
1907-1908	11
1908-1909	88
1909-1910	122
1910-1911	222
1911-1912	221
1912-1913	342
1913-1914	407
1914-1915	469
1915-1916	667
1916-1917	880

1917-1918	1,077
1918-1919	1,205
1919-1920	1,334
1920-1921	1,538
1921-1922	1,836
1922-1923	2,191
1923-1924	2,907
1924-1925	3,588
1925-1926	4,527
1926-1927	6,195
1927-1928	7,412
1928-1929	8,953

An important problem which faced the first secondary schools was housing. The schoolhouses bequeathed by the Spanish régime were few and not suitable for school purposes. There was an imperative need to build more adequate schoolhouses as soon as possible. Temporary buildings of wood were erected to solve the problem. The Bureau of Education in the meantime prepared plans for permanent schoolhouses. These standard plans were perfected during 1910.

*Housing
Problem*

Insular appropriations have been made since 1904 for the construction of school buildings. The first act, passed in December, 1904, appropriated 350,000 pesos for the erection of intermediate and high-school buildings. In December, 1906, 300,000 pesos, and in August, 1907, 350,000 pesos were set aside for the same purpose. The World War, 1914-1918, affected the building program on account of the rise in price of building materials and the cost of labor. However, the policy of erecting permanent buildings of concrete was continued. The legislature in 1918 authorized the provincial governments to issue bonds for the construction of public edifices. It also passed Act No.

2786, appropriating 1,850,000 pesos for school buildings and school sites. Of this amount, 300,000 pesos were spent for the construction of high-school buildings. Another piece of legislation passed in 1926 set aside 112,000 pesos for the construction of new provincial high-school buildings. The Province of Pangasinan alone has three concrete buildings for the provincial high school. Part of the sum of 1,645,000 pesos, appropriated by the legislature in 1927 for school purposes, was also spent in the construction of high-school buildings.

As a result of these legislative enactments the high schools located in the various parts of the Islands are now adequately housed in permanent concrete structures which will endure for many years to come.

*Monroe
Survey*

After a critical survey of the Philippine educational system in 1924, the Monroe Commission offered several constructive recommendations for the improvement of secondary instruction. The first was that a department of secondary education be created in the Bureau of Education headed by a general supervisor. He would be assisted by four special supervisors of rural-high-school, normal-school, academic-high-school, and household-arts curricula. The supervisors should make frequent visits to the secondary schools to give helpful suggestions and encouragement to the workers in the field. These officials should be the leaders in secondary education. A second recommendation was that practical autonomy be granted to the high-school principal. He should be placed directly under the department of secondary

education, and not under the division superintendent of schools. The division superintendent should devote all his attention to the administration of the lower schools. The commission counseled against the frequent, and at times sudden, transfers of high-school principals, for this practice results in wasted effort and inefficiency. It also believed it would be highly desirable if high-school principals were assured of security of tenure of office; that the excessive routine work now performed by these school officials should be given to clerks, so that the former might center their whole attention upon the supervision and improvement of instruction. In the opinion of the commission the current compensation must be increased in order that able men and women might be attracted to the service and that only teachers with long experience in teaching and professional training should be appointed to these posts.

In regard to the subjects of study the commission made several recommendations. It would make algebra and geometry elective, rather than required subjects as at present. Physics should also be made elective and chemistry, if equipment were available, should be offered. It found the textbooks in Philippine history and government defective. It recommended the introduction of a course in Filipino community life and institutions in the first year, a course in oriental civilization in the second, a course in the history of western culture with emphasis on American civilization in

the third, and a course in Philippine social problems and history in the fourth year.¹

The lack of a mastery of the language of instruction, English, on the part of teachers and pupils is an important problem facing the secondary schools. If secondary instruction is to be effective, much attention should be given to improving the teaching of English. This is a problem which is well known and is as old as the American régime.

Many of the findings of the Monroe Commission are not new. They are problems which the Bureau of Education has been facing since its organization.

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CHAPTER XIX

VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION, 1900-1930

Vocational training has been stressed in the Philippine schools since the beginning. It was one of the principal aims of the industrial courses that were offered in the elementary and the intermediate schools. The practical value of industrial instruction was realized when an exhibit was held in 1907, at which some of the industrial products of the schools were sold. The exhibit demonstrated the commercial value of this phase of school work. Hence, in 1908, the Bureau of Education made industrial work a requirement in all elementary and intermediate schools. It made a survey in 1910 of the raw materials available in the various parts of the Philippines that were suitable for industrial products. In 1913 it sent into the field a bulletin on the *Industrial Fiber Plants of the Philippines*. This was followed in 1915 by another publication, entitled *A Handbook of Industrial Plants*, and 15,000 perforated embroidery patterns, 30,000 lace designs, and 10,000 blueprint designs for basketry and for other handicraft products. As a further aid to industrial instruction, it started in 1912 publication of a monthly industrial magazine, *The Philippine Craftsman*. When the publication of this magazine was discontinued in 1917, the bureau disseminated industrial information through the *Philippine Edu-*

*Beginning
of Vocation-
al instruc-
tion*

cation Magazine, a privately owned magazine published in Manila.

For the marketing of the industrial products of the schools, a government sales agency was organized in 1911. Sale centers were also opened in the provincial capitals and in the various municipalities. These proved to the public the commercial value of industrial training. At the second Philippine exposition held in Manila, in 1914, the articles from the different public schools which were exhibited were valued at 99,000 pesos.

*Direction of
Vocational
Instruction*

There was an industrial division in the general office of the Bureau of Education. Attached to this office was a staff of traveling teachers who were sent into the field to guide vocational instruction. Each division had an industrial supervisor and one or two assistant industrial supervisors. The industrial division assumed the leadership in vocational instruction. It took charge of the preparation of blueprints, designs, patterns, and bulletins to be distributed in the field, and the marketing of industrial products. Under this division was the general sales department, the establishment of which was authorized in 1915 by the Philippine Legislature, to take the place of the sales agency created in 1911.

*Vocational
Education
Act*

As a result of the Vocational Education Act, which was enacted by the Philippine Legislature in 1928, the division was reorganized. Its name was changed to Division of Vocational Education, and under it were organized four departments; namely, the department of agricultural instruction, department of trades and

industries, department of home economics, and the placement department. Under the department of agricultural instruction are five supervisors; the department of trades and industries has one chief and three traveling teachers; and the department of home economics has one chief and five traveling teachers. The placement department was organized for the purpose of finding employment for the graduates of vocational schools. This personnel of the division supervises the vocational instruction throughout the Philippines.

The passage of the Vocational Education Act was due to the desire of the Philippine Legislature to foster vocational instruction. The act, besides increasing the personnel of the industrial division of the bureau, gave financial aid to the provinces for teachers' salaries, teacher training, and buildings amounting to 100,000 pesos.

In the elementary school the vocational courses forming part of the curriculum are gardening, hand-weaving, and woodworking for boys and household industries for girls. Gardening is required in all schools. Vegetables that are popular among Filipinos are planted by the school children. Home gardening is also encouraged, for which credit is given. In the intermediate grades nursery work is stressed. The hand-weaving courses are basketry, mat making, hat making, and bamboo-rattan furniture making. There are abundant local materials for these industries. Woodworking is required of boys in the seventh grade. It consists of exercises in the funda-

*Vocational
Courses in
the Elementary School*

mental operations of woodworking and, later, the making of such articles as school desks and tables. Instruction in various household industries, such as plain sewing, embroidery, lace making, and Irish crochet, is given to girls. Cooking and housekeeping are two other subjects required of girls in the elementary schools.

*Elementary
Trade
Schools*

The organization of trade schools began in 1901 in Manila. By 1907 other trade schools were established in the provinces. During 1914 there were nineteen regular trade schools with an enrollment of 2,304. In 1925 there were twenty-one trade schools. The courses in these schools are cabinet making, building construction, blacksmithing, iron working, mechanical drawing, and elementary woodworking. In addition, there are academic subjects; namely, English, arithmetic, and Philippine history and government. The elementary trade course is three years long.

*Secondary
Trade
Schools*

Since 1925 the elementary trade schools have been gradually converted into secondary trade schools. The aim was to raise the standard of the vocational schools and to attract mature students. In addition to the vocational subjects, the secondary trade course includes certain academic subjects; namely, English literature and composition, general history, arithmetic, algebra, solid geometry, trigonometry, plane geometry, and physics. The enrollment in the secondary trade schools was 2,544 in 1927 and 5,231 in 1929. The increase indicates the growing interest in vocational schools.

The commercial value of the manufactured articles of the provincial trade schools in the

school year 1925-1926 was 192,841.55 pesos. The principal output of these schools was furniture, for government and private use.

The best equipped of the secondary trade schools is the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, located in Manila and supported by the insular government. It occupies large, modern, concrete buildings, and has an athletic field of its own.

The Philippine School of Arts and Trades

The organization of an insular school of arts and trades was provided in the organic act of 1901, establishing civil government in the Philippines. The school started offering courses in woodwork, ironwork, and telegraphy. In 1906 telegraphy was transferred to the School of Commerce, also in Manila. Later, other courses were added, such as carpentry, building, machine-shop practice, blacksmithing, wheelwrighting, stationary engineering, automobile operation and repair, ceramics, drafting, preparatory engineering, and academic subjects.

In 1901 this school had an enrollment of 90 pupils; in 1914, 762; and in 1929, 1,023.

The graduates of this school receive insular appointment as teachers of the vocational subjects in which they have specialized. Those who have entered other fields of activity have been very successful.

As the Philippines is essentially an agricultural country, the national educational program emphasizes agricultural instruction, beginning with the elementary grades. In all public elementary schools gardening on the school premises and in the home, whenever

Agricultural Instruction

possible, is a part of the pupils' course. A farming course is offered in the intermediate grades. Then there are the three types of schools giving agricultural instruction; namely, the agricultural schools, the farm schools, and the settlement farm schools. An agricultural school is a boarding school. A farm school is a day school of intermediate grade, with facilities for the teaching of practical farming to boys and housekeeping and household arts to girls. A settlement farm school is a primary school established in non-Christian provinces.

Agricultural Schools

The principal agricultural school is the Central Luzon Agricultural School located in Muñoz, Nueva Ecija. It is supported by insular funds. The aims of the school are to prepare students to become independent and progressive farmers and to train agricultural leaders. The school offers a one-year course of special training for teachers of agriculture, intermediate and secondary courses, and courses in farm management, in agricultural education, and in farm mechanics. The school has a 658-hectare farm, 260 hectares of which were under cultivation in 1920. The value of the farm produce in 1919 was about 44,706.26 pesos and in 1920, 39,751.18 pesos.

The students are self-supporting. They build their own houses. They own and operate a moving-picture show, a sawmill, a general store, a bank, and a printing press. A form of student government has been evolved. The students select their own president, councilors, and police force. They pay taxes and take their produce to the school granary. They

have also their own poultry and hog projects and gardens.

The enrollment of the school has been increasing. In 1914 it had 206 students; in 1924, 768; and in 1929, 1,038.

Other schools, patterned after the Central Luzon Agricultural School, are the Trinidad Agricultural School, in Mountain Province; the Camarines Agricultural School, in Pili, Camarines Sur; the Catarman Agricultural School, in Samar; the Lagangilang Agricultural School, in Abra; and the Aborlan Agricultural School, in Palawan. In 1929 there were fifteen schools of this type.

*The Rural
Schools of
Agriculture*

Another type of schools of agriculture is called the rural high school. During the school year 1923-1924 there were 272 schools of this type. They are located in isolated communities and emphasize practical training in farming. It is hoped that these schools will help in the improvement of farming methods in agricultural communities.

The farm schools, or day schools of agriculture, are smaller than the agricultural schools. There were fourteen farm schools in 1925 with an enrollment of 2,505 boys and girls, 440 hectares of land, and 3,307 work animals. The best known of these schools are the Santa Maria Farm School in Ilocos Sur and the Guinobatan Farm School in Albay. The curriculum of the farm schools is patterned after that of the Central Luzon Agricultural School. They offer courses in farming, housekeeping, and household arts, but their facilities are fewer than those of the boarding agricultural schools.

*Farm
Schools*

*Settlement
Farm
Schools*

In backward communities, chiefly in the non-Christian regions, are the settlement farm schools. The aim of these schools is to show the people the advantages of a settled life and of modern farming methods. Besides practical farm instruction, these schools teach the academic subjects of the lower grades of the elementary course. There were, in 1927, 274 schools of this type with an enrollment of 19,666 pupils and 4,965 hectares of land, 1,078 of which were already cultivated.

*Survey of
Agricultural
Schools*

In 1930 the Philippine government invited Doctor Charles A. Prosser, a noted American specialist in vocational education, to undertake a survey of the whole field of vocational education in the Philippines. Doctor Prosser reported that he found only one agricultural school, the Central Luzon Agricultural School, at Muñoz, Nueva Ecija, which was properly equipped to give agricultural instruction. The twelve agricultural schools located in the provinces were inadequately equipped for their tasks. He said:

Many of them lack proper living conditions for their students. None of them have an adequate budget with which to render efficient service to the students they enroll. Many provincial agricultural schools at least find themselves denied almost annually modest and meager requests for needed funds With all their defects, these schools come nearer meeting the real needs of the whole group they serve than any other type of secondary schools in the Islands of which I know. Students are given assets with which to earn a livelihood in some agricultural employment. There is no lack, moreover, and there will not be any lack

during the next half century, of abundant opportunity for putting to use what they have learned.

The Vocational Education Act which became effective in 1928, provided for the training of vocational teachers. Pensionados were sent to the college of agriculture of the state university,¹ where a special course for teachers of agriculture was organized. Also, the Central Luzon Agricultural School has a training course for teachers of agriculture.

*Training of
Agricultural
Teachers*

THE HOME-ECONOMICS COURSE

As has been said in a previous chapter, training in the household arts in the Philippine public schools begins in the second grade of the elementary course. It consists of plain sewing, simple embroidery stitches, crocheting, and lace making or tatting. In recent years the teaching of sewing has become very practical. The making of garments that can be worn, either by the girls or by members of their families, is stressed. The number of such garments made in 1928 was 400,000.

*In the Ele-
mentary
Schools*

Instruction in cooking, housekeeping, home nursing, and sewing is given in the intermediate grades. In some of the schools there are appropriate cottages where housekeeping is practiced by the girls. The emphasis on the practical side of the home economics course has been much commended.² This course leads to the secondary home-economics course.

*In the In-
termediate
Schools*

¹ See Ch. XXI.

² Dr. Charles A. Prosser, in his report on vocational education in 1930, spoke highly of the intermediate home-economics course. See his mimeographed report.

The Secondary Home-Economics Course

Housekeeping as a course was introduced into the secondary schools in 1917. At present it includes the academic subjects given in the general secondary course. The home-economics subjects are embroidery or lace making and plain sewing in the first year; housekeeping, cooking, and plain sewing in the second year; food chemistry, cooking, and embroidery or lace making in the third year; and home nursing and embroidery or lace making in the fourth year. The American expert on vocational education, Doctor Charles A. Prosser, recommended that a practice cottage be provided for the secondary home-economics students.

Home-economics libraries have also been formed. Books and magazines on home economics are bought yearly, to be added to these libraries.

Training of Teachers

The teachers of home economics are trained in the Philippine Normal School and in the University of the Philippines. The Philippine Normal School offers three home-economics courses of varying length: A two-year course for graduates of the secondary home-economics course; a two-and-one-half-year course for graduates of the general secondary course; and a three-year, combined course, open to high-school graduates, which entitles the graduate to both the home-economics and the general normal-course diplomas. Since 1928 these courses have been improved by increasing the real home-economics subjects. In 1929 these courses were as follows:

TWO-YEAR HOME-ECONOMICS CURRICULUM

First Year

English, reading, drawing, educational psychology, home-economics methods, sewing, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Second Year

English, commercial geography, physiology, dietetics, music, industrial arithmetic, teaching.

TWO-AND-ONE-HALF-YEAR HOME-ECONOMICS
CURRICULUM*First Year*

English, reading, sewing, music, drawing, cooking, needlework.

Second Year

English, cooking, home-economics methods, educational psychology, sewing, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Third Year (One semester)

Physiology, commercial geography, dietetics, home nursing, industrial arithmetic, teaching.

THREE-YEAR COMBINED CURRICULUM

First Year

English, reading, music, drawing, cooking, sewing, educational psychology, child study.

Second Year

English, needlework, home-economics methods, principles of teaching, sewing, geography, commercial geography, chemistry of foods, observation and participation.

Third Year

Language, dietetics, arithmetic, cooking, educational measurements, home nursing, physiology, teaching, principles of education.

A criticism against these curricula is the inclusion of commercial geography and other subjects which can well be replaced by purely home-economics subjects. Another is that the Philippine Normal School has no cottage in

which actual housekeeping may be practiced by the prospective teachers. This is regarded as a handicap, because a teacher of home economics must have some experience in managing a home before she can be considered a well-trained teacher.

THE SCHOOL OF HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES, 1912-1916

In order to stimulate industries that can be conducted at home, the Philippine Assembly, in June, 1912, passed a law authorizing the establishment of a school of household industries in Manila. The Filipino women who attended the school promised upon graduation to return to their home towns and establish needlework centers there. The school offered a six-month course (later, eight-month) in lace and embroidery. Later, lace making was abandoned, and training in the embroidering of high-grade lingerie, table linen, handkerchiefs, and other articles in demand on the American market was stressed. A course in business procedure was also given. The pupils were taught how to keep accurately the records of orders from individuals or firms and expense-account and workers' record forms. In 1916 the school was closed, as its work could well be performed in the regular schools teaching home-economics subjects.

The enrollment in 1914 was 179. The total sales for the same year amounted to 4,474.02 pesos. The Panama-Pacific International Exposition paid 2,210.56 pesos of this amount.

THE PHILIPPINE SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

The government also maintains a school of commerce in the City of Manila. From 1904 to 1908 it was known as the Manila Business School. In 1908 it was reorganized and its name changed to the Philippine School of Commerce. It was supported by insular funds. It was originally open to intermediate graduates, but beginning 1909 it raised the entrance requirement. By 1917, only those who had finished the first year of the secondary course could be admitted. For the benefit of students working during the day the school conducts night classes. The aim of the school is to train bookkeepers, typists, translators, stenographers, cashiers, commerce teachers, and salesmen.

In 1914 the courses of study offered in this school were: A four-year course in commerce; a two-year bookkeeping course; a three-year course in stenography, and a one-year course in stenography, for high-school graduates. In the three-year course in commerce the subjects taught in 1918 were the following:

*Curriculum**First Year*

Bookkeeping, business English, commercial arithmetic, spelling, current events, business conditions, penmanship, typewriting.

Second Year

Bookkeeping, business English and copying from rough draft, current events, business conditions, spelling, commercial geography, commercial law, stenography, typewriting.

Third Year

Stenography, business English, business conditions, current events, economic conditions in the Philippines, typewriting, Spanish.

The two-year bookkeeping course in 1918 was as follows:

First Year

Bookkeeping, business English, commercial arithmetic, spelling, current events, business conditions, penmanship, typewriting.

Second Year

Bookkeeping, business English, copying from rough draft, current events, business conditions, commercial geography, commercial law, typewriting, Spanish.

The two-year stenography course in 1918 consisted of the following subjects:

First Year

Stenography, business English, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, spelling, current events, business conditions, typewriting.

Second Year

Stenography, business English, copying from rough draft, current events, business conditions, spelling, commercial law, business practice, Spanish, typewriting.

In 1912 a one-year course in stenography for high-school graduates was also offered. This consisted of an intensive course in stenography, business English, copying from rough draft, current events, business conditions, spelling, and typewriting.

The courses of study were revised in 1923 and a four-year commercial course was organized. Admission was based on the results of intelligence tests. The following subjects, distributed over a period of four years, comprised the commercial course in 1929:

First Year

Literature, composition, United States history and government, current events, algebra, penmanship, physical education.

Second Year

Business English and spelling, literature and composition, stenography or bookkeeping, practical business arithmetic, typewriting, physical education.

Third Year

Literature and composition, business English and spelling, stenography or bookkeeping, commercial geography, commercial law, Spanish, typewriting, physical education.

Fourth Year

Business English and spelling, elements of economics, Philippine government, stenography or bookkeeping, Spanish, typewriting and office practice, physical education.

The course included the cultural subjects taught in the academic secondary schools, with the exception of science subjects.

The number of students enrolled has been gradually increasing. The poor quarters of the school have prevented the admission of more students. Table 6 shows the enrollment for four years.

Enrollment

TABLE 6.
Enrollment in the Philippine School of Commerce.

Year.	Day school.	Night school.	Total.
1923-24	405	324	729
1924-25	548	379	927
1925-26	473	460	933
1926-27	516	435	951

SCHOOL OF NAVIGATION

There is only one school of navigation in the Philippines. It is called the Philippine Nautical School, and is a legacy from the Spanish régime.¹ The four-year course of study inaugurated by the Spanish authorities

¹ See Ch. II, XI.

was followed by the Americans, and the study of English was introduced. From 1908 to 1913 the school was closed, because of the lack of a training ship.

In 1913 it was reopened as a department of the Philippine School of Arts and Trades but, since 1918, it has been housed in a new building on the Pasay beach. Its equipment of nautical instruments was increased. The requirements for admission since 1924 have been the completion of the second year of the secondary school and that the applicant must be at least sixteen years of age.

The course of study is two years long. In the first year the cadets study elementary navigation, including deviation and compass compensation, chart, lead and log, algebra and geometry, logarithms and plain trigonometry, piloting, elementary seamanship, including tying knots and splicing ropes, and the semaphore. In the second year the studies are advanced navigation, including astronomy, spherical trigonometry, latitude and longitude, rules for preventing collisions, meteorology, Summer and St. Hilaire's method, ship's business, advanced seamanship, including sail making, and signalling. In both years the students must take up calisthenics, swimming, boat drill, athletics, military drill, and fire drill. Following the completion of this two-year course, the cadets serve as apprentices on inter-island vessels for eighteen months. At the end of the practical training they receive licenses as marine officers. This course of study has replaced the antiquated Spanish curriculum and

is similar to that of foreign nautical schools.

The enrollment is limited to 60 cadets, but in 1922 there were only 59, and in 1923, 49. The decreasing enrollment is attributed to the small demand for trained marine officers in the Philippines.

THE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND BLIND

This school, started in 1907, is essentially a vocational school for children who, on account of certain physical defects, would not fit in the regular schools. It is maintained by insular funds. The children are given board, lodging, tuition, and books free of charge, but they furnish their own clothing.

The course of study is adapted from that of the Philippine public schools and from the curriculum of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf. The girls are taught housekeeping, plain sewing, and other needlework. The boys are trained in carpentry, printing, shoemaking, poultry raising, and gardening. The school has regular academic classes, from the first grade to the second year of the secondary school. The deaf are taught by the combined system of writing and finger spelling and speech, aided by calisthenics, folk dances, and other games. In teaching the blind both the American Braille and the English Braille systems are used. There is also a kindergarten class which is conducted according to Doctor Montessori's House of Childhood and Froebel's Methods. The older girls take charge of bathing and dressing the little ones.

The aim of the school is to train these physically defective children to lead a happy and useful life. Those who have left the school are now self-supporting, working at such trades as tailoring, carpentry, printing, and shoemaking.

The school occupies a concrete house in Pasay, Rizal, surrounded by large grounds. The number of applicants in recent years far exceeds the capacity of the school. Since 1914 the number of students has steadily increased. The enrollment in that year was 53, and in 1927 it had risen to 124.

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CHAPTER XX

THE EDUCATION OF NON-CHRISTIAN FILIPINOS, 1900-1930

It was the American policy to make the non-Christian population of the Philippines useful to the nation by giving them the same educational opportunities as the Christian Filipinos receive. In the early part of the American régime, not only the military government but also private American citizens earnestly worked among these people and established schools for them.

*The Estab-
lishment of
Schools*

In the Province of Benguet, between 1901 and 1902, about ten teachers were assigned to open schools for the Igorots. On account of the lack of roads and the widely scattered dwellings of the Igorots, it was difficult for the children to come to school. For this reason, it was decided to establish schools only in the more important towns. In 1902 a school with a dormitory for boys was organized in Baguio, and another in Bontoc. Similar schools were subsequently opened in Nueva Vizcaya, Lanao, Sulu, Cotabato, Davao, Zamboanga, Agusan, Bukidnon, Ilocos Sur, Ilocos Norte, Tarlac, Antique, Bataan, Zambales, Camarines, Palawan, and Mindoro which had non-Christian population. By 1913 the number of schools for non-Christians in the Christian provinces was fifty, and the average daily attendance was 1,640. In the non-Christian provinces the number of schools was eighty-nine

and the average daily attendance was 3,506. Between 1913 and 1930 the number of these schools and the enrollment therein increased greatly. Table 7 shows the number of schools and the enrollment for a period of seven years.

TABLE 7.
Public Schools in the Non-Christian Provinces.

DATE.	PUBLIC SCHOOLS.	ENROLLMENT.
1917.....	439	37,715
1918.....	535	44,793
1919.....	683	60,241
1920.....	798	72,348
1921.....	910	82,656
1922.....	902	83,915
1923.....	898	85,614

These figures represent both elementary and secondary schools, but the enrollment in the primary schools is larger than that in the secondary schools. In December, 1923, 98.25 per centum of the total enrollment was in the primary schools. Also, the number of boys exceeds that of girls; boys comprised 67.6 per centum of the primary enrollment, and girls 32.4 per centum.

The cost of education is higher in the non-Christian provinces than in the Christian provinces. In 1925 the per-pupil cost of education for all Philippine schools was 22.75 pesos. During the same year the cost per pupil in the individual non-Christian divisions was as follows: Agusan, ₱16.86; Bukidnon, ₱27.22; Lanao, ₱39.48; Mountain, ₱24.64; Nueva Vizcaya, ₱34.43; Palawan, ₱22.90; Sulu, ₱24.42; and Zamboanga, ₱25.15.

In the school for non-Christians vocational instruction is stressed. Farming and industrial work take up about half of the school program. The boys build schoolhouses and homes and make chairs, beds, boxes, bolos, hammers, axes, and other articles of practical value. The girls are taught plain sewing, weaving, and house-keeping. Farming is taught in the settlement farm schools, already described in a previous chapter.

One of the crying needs of non-Christian communities is improvement in health conditions. For this reason health instruction is emphasized in the schools. The school children are given instruction in proper nutrition and diet, diseases common to school children, symptoms of common diseases, and simple remedies and treatments. School dispensaries are performing a valuable service among the non-Christians. They distribute medicine to students and their parents.

*Health
Instruction*

One of the problems encountered in educational work among the non-Christians was the hostile attitude of parents toward education. Gradually, however, this is being overcome. The leading spokesmen of the different groups of non-Christians have publicly declared that they favor the extension of public schools among their people. In a generation or so all opposition will probably disappear.

*Some
Problems*

How to attract girls to the schools was another problem. Tribal custom, early marriage, religious scruples, and the lack of women teachers prevent the non-Christian girls from attending school. However, it is con-

sidered essential that educational endeavor should reach the non-Christian womanhood if it is to produce beneficial result, for in the life of this people women play a great influence. Through persistent effort since the last two decades and with the coöperation of the Bureau of Non-Christian Tribes and of government officials¹ the enrollment of girls has steadily increased. The following figures show the number of girls attending school for a period of seven years:

YEAR.	STUDENTS.
1917	10,191
1918	13,023
1919	18,609
1920	22,960
1921	25,849
1922	26,464
1923	27,609

The daughters of leading Mohammedans have been pensioned by the government to study in the Manila schools, and one of them was sent to college in the United States. Some of these girls are now teaching in the public schools in Mindanao and Sulu. The support given by leading Mohammedan citizens to the public schools is a hopeful sign for the future.

How to finance the schools has been a serious problem. Local funds being insufficient, the schools must depend largely upon insular appropriations. Prior to 1919 special appropriations were annually made for the department of Mindanao and Sulu. In 1914 the total amount spent for education and the con-

¹ Particularly, Governor Frank W. Carpenter, former director of the Bureau of Non-Christian Tribes, accomplished a great deal in persuading Mohammedan parents to send their daughters to school.

struction of some school buildings was 270,-088 pesos. The Bureau of Education took charge of all the schools in 1919 and thereafter the expense for education was included in the bureau's annual appropriation. Adequate financial support is necessary in order to attract teachers to serve here and to extend elementary education to as large a number of children as possible.

There has been a great demand for schools in Mountain Province. The leading schools are the Boys' Industrial School in Baguio, the Trinidad Agricultural High School, Kabugao Rural High School, the Girls' Industrial School at Bua, and 133 settlement farm schools. The courses of study in these schools are adapted to local needs. The aim of the industrial training is to fit the pupils to become economically independent and useful citizens. The girls are taught loom weaving and are able to sell the finished product.

*Mountain
Province*

The non-Christian population of Nueva Vizcaya consists principally of Igorots and Ilongots. As early as 1914 there were thirty-two schools in operation with an average daily attendance of 2,518. There were eight settlement farm schools and one rural high school in 1929.

*Nueva
Vizcaya*

The public schools in Agusan have attracted the pagans to a settled life. There were in 1929 sixty-four settlement farm schools with an annual enrollment of 3,188, and one agricultural high school with an annual attendance of 354. These schools have cultivated 272 hectares of land; they have 53 cara-

Agusan

baos, 170 hogs, and 1,335 chickens and other poultry. Rice, corn, bananas, and other agricultural products in sufficient quantities to support their families are raised by the students.

Bukidnon

In Bukidnon there are one agricultural high school with an enrollment in 1929 of 197, and 49 settlement farm schools with an annual enrollment of 4,011. These schools have a total of 1,328 hectares of land, of which 300 hectares were under cultivation in 1929. They have, besides, 94 carabaos, 8 horses, and 38 work cattle. The pupils raise hogs and poultry.

Abra

The pagan population of Abra, the Tinguianes, are provided with schools, the most important of which is the Lagangilang Agricultural High School. It has a farm of 125 hectares. Here are dormitories, cottages for teachers, a tailor shop, a tool shop, a carpentry shop, a woodshed, a nursery, and the academic building, arranged around an open playground. The farm is planted to rice, corn, and fruit trees, such as papayas, bananas, citrons, and pomelos. Poultry raising is an important activity of the pupils. The enrollment in 1929 was 226.

Palawan

In Palawan is a pagan tribe known as the Tagbanuas. They are a gentle people but are still nomadic. To attract these people to lead a settled life two farm schools and one agricultural high school located on Aborlan River have been organized. Their farms comprise 299 hectares of fertile land, mostly planted to coconuts. Rice, corn, camotes, and cassava are also raised. Hog and poultry raising

are a part of the farm activities. Instruction in hygiene and sanitation, which is badly needed in this community, is emphasized.

The educational work among the Mohammedans of Mindanao and Sulu registered marked improvement in the last two decades. The enrollment in the public schools has increased, which indicates the lessening of the hostility of non-Christian parents to education. It is very encouraging to note that Mohammedan leaders have publicly expressed in various occasions their desire to see more schools established in their provinces in order that all their children might be accommodated. This laudable attitude has found approval among the Christian Filipinos, who have always favored the extension of public education among the Mohammedans.

*Mindanao
and Sulu*

Another evidence of the success of educational work among the non-Christians in Mindanao and Sulu is the attendance at the public schools of girls, some of whom come from the most influential families. In December, 1919, there were 13,596 girls in the public schools of Mindanao and Sulu. In the next year, 1920, the number increased to 17,809. Six Mohammedan princesses of the sultanate of Sulu, who had completed their studies in Manila, were teaching in the public schools in 1919. There were altogether 42 Mohammedan young men and women teachers in 1919.

There are Christian Filipino teachers serving in the public schools in Mindanao and Sulu.

Some of these teachers have acquired homesteads and are thus helping to develop the rich lands of the region. In 1919 Sulu and Bukidnon, besides Mountain Province, paid the highest salaries to municipal teachers. The average salary was 48.04 pesos a month.

There are also non-Christian teachers. Their number is increasing, for every year more and more non-Christians are qualifying for teaching positions.

Women teachers have been in demand to teach Mohammedan girls. The policy of the Bureau of Education is to assign women teachers only in schools in which there are girls, for Mohammedan fathers are opposed to having male teachers for girls.

All observers laud the beneficent influence of public education in this region. As more schools are opened, the hostility of the Mohammedans toward the Christians gradually disappears. The Mohammedan Filipinos now realize the value of education and are demanding more schools. In the maintenance of peace and order, the public schools have proved to be a valuable aid. It is hoped that eventually education will reach all the Mohammedan people.

*Monroe
Recommendations*

The Monroe Educational Survey in 1925 made ten recommendations in regard to the system of education for non-Christians.¹ They are as follows:

First. There should be a special supervisor or deputy director.

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 101, 102.

Second. He and the regular division superintendents should work in close connection with the *datu*.¹ Experiments in giving authority to some *datu* to carry out a well-planned educational scheme should be tried.

Third. There should be no compulsion used at the present stage in securing the attendance of girls.

Fourth. Girls should always be taught by women teachers, preferably by married women.

Fifth. The industrial work should be such as will contribute something useful to the life of the immediate community. Except in very limited instances, where the economic incentive is very clearly developed and can be met without the long delay incident to the present plan, commercial work for the Manila or the world market should not be demanded.

Sixth. This industrial work should be varied and adapted to the community. It might be boat building, net making, rattan or bamboo furniture making, hammock making, simple basket or mat making, or the making of furniture or utensils suitable to their homes, shell work, bamboo decorative work, brass work, jewelry work, weaving, the preparation of all types of articles peculiar to these people, many of which have considerable demand in curio as well as local markets. All these might well be encouraged. By drawing upon native and local interest and skill which already exist, the simple and rudimentary arts of these people might be developed.

Seventh. In a similar way the agricultural work of the farm and agricultural schools should be more directly adapted to the life of these people. Either through home garden, home farming or poultry or other animal projects, the work should be carried directly to the people. Where efforts are made to improve methods of cultivation or types of produce, careful study should be given to local conditions. Much of the difficulty of the schools in these regions is that the method and content of the work are wholly foreign to these people. It might even well happen

¹ *Datu*, or *dato* is the title of the chief of a Moro tribe.

that methods of rice raising, successful at Muñoz, are not at all adapted to conditions in the Moro country. Coöperation instead of compulsion, leadership instead of driving force, is needed in all this work and, above all, in the work of agriculture.

Eight. Exceptional attention should be given to hygiene and sanitation and to the general problem of healthful living. This should be of a practical character, a training of habit wherever possible; but it should not contravene essential Moslem matters of faith.

Ninth. Special attention should be given to the training of girls in the arts and practice of house-keeping, child care, and a healthful physical life. So far as possible, a dormitory attached to the school for a few well-chosen girls is to be commended. The type at Cotabato is an illustration. Especially in a society organized as that of the Moro, the education of a few girls from the dominant families is far more influential than the attempt to get a large number of girls into the school. Much more rapid progress can be made in permeating the entire society through a few leaders than can be achieved through attempting mass education.

Tenth. All such work should endeavor to enlist the coöperation of both the Moro leaders and the people. Much of the educational work attempted is so paternalistic in type and operated so entirely from the outside that it leaves the people quite uninfluenced. They should be made to understand that the school work is their work, that it should be partially supported by them, and that it is designed wholly for their good.

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v

CHAPTER XXI
THE UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES,
1908-1930

Under the American régime, the Filipinos realized their dream of a state institution of higher learning entirely free from clerical control. By an act passed by the Philippine Assembly in 1908, a university was created under the name of University of the Philippines. In organization and administration, it was patterned after American state universities.

Foundation

According to the charter, the administration of the university is vested in a board of regents. Originally, this body was composed of the secretary of public instruction as chairman, and the secretary of the interior, the director of education, the chairman of the committee on public instruction of the Philippine Assembly, the president of the university, a justice of the Supreme Court to be designated by the governor-general, and five additional members to be appointed by the governor-general with the advice and consent of the Philippine Commission. Subsequent amendments to the charter have altered the composition of this board. At the time of writing, 1930, it is composed of the secretary of public instruction who is ex-officio chairman of the board, the chairmen of the committees on public instruction of the Philippine Legislature, the president of the university, the director of education, one member of the university council

*Adminis-
tration*

of the University of the Philippines, two alumni of the university, and three additional members who are appointed by the governor-general with the consent of the senate. The university council representative and the two alumni members serve for a term of three years. The three additional members, appointed by the governor-general, serve from one to three years. No member of the faculty, with the exception of the council representative, can be appointed or elected to the board. All members of the board must be citizens of the Philippine Islands or of the United States and residents of the Philippine Islands.

*Powers of
the Board
of Regents*

The charter gives the board corporate powers. In addition, it can create new colleges or combine existing ones for purposes of economy and efficiency. It may also confer honorary degrees upon persons other than graduates of the university. It appoints and fixes the compensation of the teaching staff. It can take disciplinary action against any member of the faculty. It determines all student fees; it approves all courses of study and rules of discipline recommended by the university council; it can create fellowships and scholarships and award them; it receives bequests or donations and administers them for the benefit of the university. It also elects the president of the university and fixes his compensation.

*The
University
Council*

The university council was organized at the beginning of the academic year 1911-1912. It was composed of all members of the university faculty holding the rank of professor, associate professor, or assistant professor. It is presided

over by the president and has power to prescribe the courses of study and rules of discipline, subject to approval by the board of regents. It has various committees. They are, at the time of writing, as follows: Executive, attendance, athletic control, entrance and relations to other institutions, graduate studies, honorary degrees, military science and tactics, student organization and activities, students' progress, student publications, students' living conditions, curriculum, academic costume and ceremonies.

The executive committee is composed of the president, the deans of colleges granting degrees, and the registrar. This body has served as an advisory council to the president on university matters. It has also the power to act upon cases of discipline which might be referred to it by the dean of a college.

The members of the other committees are appointed by the president from among the council members.

The council must meet at least once a month if there is business to transact; but, for reasons of economy the president does not call a meeting every month. Each meeting entails some expense on the part of the university, such as the payment of the traveling expenses of faculty members who reside in Los Baños, where the College of Agriculture is located. The council is represented on the board of regents by one of its members, whom it elects once every three years.

The president of the university is chosen by the board. Since the establishment of the uni-

*The
President*

versity, there have been four permanent presidents and three acting presidents, as follows:

Murray Bartlett, June, 1911, to March, 1915.

Ignacio Villamor, June, 1915, to May, 1920.

José Escaler (acting) December, 1918, to June, 1919.

Alejandro Albert (acting) May, 1920, to April, 1921.

Guy Potter Benton, April, 1921, to October, 1923.

Rafael Palma (acting) October, 1923, to March, 1915.

Rafael Palma, March, 1925, to....

The Filipinos who have been elected president are nationally known leaders and men of outstanding scholarship. Ignacio Villamor (1863-) is a jurist and scholar; José Escaler, (1885-1927) was also a jurist and an honor graduate of Yale University; Alejandro Albert has been identified with the educational movement in the Philippines and was one of the founders of the Liceo de Manila, a private secondary school established by Filipinos; Rafael Palma is a writer and scholar, and was a national leader even before his election to the presidency.

*The
Secretary*

The secretary is appointed by the board of regents. The university has had four secretaries since its foundation. The first was McQueen S. Wightman; the second was James F. Kemp, who served from 1911 to 1918; the third was José Gil, from 1918 to 1919; and the fourth is Felipe Estella (1919.—). The two Filipino secretaries are lawyers, graduates of the University of the Philippines.

Under the original charter the treasurer of the Philippine Islands is the ex-officio treasurer of the university. Recently, the university secretary has been made the treasurer of the university. The secretary-treasurer performs a number of important duties. He is secretary of the board of regents and is responsible for the purchase and storage of supplies for the university.

*The
Treasurer*

The office of comptroller was created in 1928. The first incumbent of the office was Roberto Gozar, now deceased. He was succeeded by Juan Quintos, an alumnus of the university, in 1930. The comptroller examines and certifies accounts. He works in close co-operation with the secretary-treasurer.

*The
Comptroller*

The office of registrar was created in January, 1911, by the board of regents. Doctor James F. Kemp was designated registrar. In February, 1914, the office was abolished and the secretary continued to perform the duties of registrar. The office was revived in March, 1927, and Doctor Vidal Tan, head of the mathematics department, was appointed registrar. Upon the resignation of Doctor Tan in 1928, Doctor Leandro H. Fernandez, head of the history department, was appointed to succeed him.

*The
Registrar*

The registrar's office passes on the entrance qualifications of students, keeps student records, enforces the scholarship rules, and attends to other academic matters that affect the students. It is an important office in the university administration.

*The
Faculty*

The members of the faculty are appointed by the board of regents upon recommendation of the president. In practice, the choice is made by the head of the department of the college who makes the recommendation to the dean of the college. The latter generally endorses the department head's recommendation to the president. The members of the faculty are ranked as professor, associate professor, assistant professor, instructor, and assistant instructor. No examination is required for appointment to the faculty; but, as a general rule, the candidates must be holders of academic degrees from reputable universities. Foreigners have served in the faculty, and are given encouragement by larger remuneration than that given to Filipinos. German, American, Spanish, Lithuanian, Chinese, and Japanese nationalities have been represented in the faculty.

Though not under the Bureau of Civil Service, the faculty members are subject to the rules laid down by that bureau as regards working hours, leave of absence, and the like. Some of the faculty members are on the so-called teacher's leave basis, which entitles them to enjoy about two months' vacation, from the closing of the school year in March to the opening in June, and during December with full salary. They are required to render service of at least five hours on working days. Other members of the faculty, such as department heads and those in the department of natural sciences are on the accrued-leave basis. These are entitled to about forty-two days'

vacation during the year, twelve days of which are called sick leave and are lost if not taken annually. The annual thirty days accrued at the end of five years may be taken all at once. These faculty members are required to render seven hours' service on working days.

The university has adopted a system of sending about ten of its instructors every year to American and European universities for graduate study. As a result of this practice a number of faculty members have obtained the degree of doctor of philosophy abroad. The Monroe Survey Commission found that nearly all the instructors had professional training and held appropriate degrees in accordance with American standards.

Since 1916 the compensation of the members of the teaching staff has been fixed by legislative enactment, although the university charter empowers the board of regents to determine the salaries of faculty members. The salary schedule as provided in that act¹ is as follows:

Deans, who are at the same time professors not to exceed	Pesos 6,600
Full professors, not to exceed.....	6,000
Associate professors, not to exceed....	4,500
Assistant professors, not to exceed....	3,600
Instructors, not to exceed:	
(a) Instructor in laboratories....	2,200
(b) Instructors in general	2,000
Assistant instructors not to exceed:	
(a) Instructors in laboratories...	1,200
(b) Instructors in general	960
Graduate assistants, not to exceed....	260

¹ Act No. 2672.

In 1924 the board of regents adopted certain rules regarding the personnel of the teaching staff of the university. Admitting that the salaries were too low, the board made the declaration that a larger appropriation should be secured from the legislature in order to raise them. The board fixed the personnel of every department and declared that no new positions would be created unless by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board. As regards promotion it adopted the following rules:

1. No promotion from instructor to assistant professor shall be made unless the candidate has served at least two years as instructor. Promotion from assistant professor to associate professor shall be granted only after two years' service as assistant professor, and from associate to full professor only after the incumbent has served two years as associate or five years in the university from the time he first held the title of instructor.

2. No promotion in rank must be approved by the board of regents unless there is a vacancy according to the terms of this standardization and unless the promotion is warranted by the research work, important publication, or manuscript evidencing high scholarship, teaching ability and, all conditions being equal, seniority in the service of the incumbent, said circumstances to be set forth in detail in the record of the candidate for promotion and to be presented for the attention of the board.

3. As a general policy, the board when filling a vacancy shall not at once award to the incumbent the maximum salary assigned to the position, but the compensation will be gradually increased until it reaches the maximum in accordance with the research work, publications, teaching ability, and seniority in the service of the incumbent.

4. No appointment or promotion in rank or salary shall be considered by the board of regents unless its committee on personnel has submitted its report on the qualifications of the candidate, giving in detail the merits of the candidate.

Unlike the teachers in the Bureau of Education, the university teachers do not enjoy a pension upon retirement. However, for several years a movement has been initiated toward securing the passage of a pension law. The Monroe Survey Commission was favorable to the establishment of a pension system for university teachers.

The privilege of sabbatical leave, enjoyed by teachers in American universities, has not been adopted by the university. Its adoption was strongly recommended by the Monroe Survey Commission.

However, the teachers of our university enjoy security of tenure. No faculty member has lost his position thus far except for grave reasons and after a thorough investigation by the board of regents.¹ Some faculty members have been in the service of the university since its foundation and some have died in the service.

By a ruling of the board of regents faculty members must carry a teaching load of at

¹ In 1922 Austin Craig, Rizal Research professor and head of the department of history, was dismissed by the board of regents after an administrative investigation. He was charged with defying the university authorities by attacking in the press the president, Doctor Guy Potter Benton; the acting president, Doctor Alejandro Albert; and Regent Fisher, director of the School of Forestry. In 1931 the board of regents exonerated Professor Craig and reinstated him in the university faculty.

least fifteen hours a week. This is the current practice also in many American state universities.

In addition to their classroom teaching the members of the faculty, as in American universities, are expected to turn out from time to time some research work. The president of the university, Doctor Rafael Palma, in a radio address on July 3, 1929,¹ voiced the attitude of the university administration on this matter. The list of publications by members of the faculty, which is found in the annual reports of the president, shows the amount of research work which has been accomplished thus far.

*University
Students*

The students of the university, as a general rule, are graduates of the public schools and of the accredited private secondary schools. They are admitted on the strength of their diplomas. However, the different colleges have set their admission requirements, which will be mentioned later. The Conservatory of Music, the School of Fine Arts, and the School of Nursing admit students who are not high-school graduates. In the College of Agriculture students who have not completed the secondary course have been admitted to some courses as special students.

With the exception of the College of Agriculture, the university does not maintain dormitories for its students. Hence, students are housed in dormitories under private control.

¹ Rafael Palma; *Research Work by the University*, published in *The University Alumnus*, January 1930, pp. 1-3.

A slight supervision over the dormitories is exercised by a university committee, to insure that proper food and lighting are afforded the students.

Beginning with the year 1930 an infirmary has been opened by the university in the City of Manila. A new concrete building on Padre Faura Street has been erected to house the infirmary. Some members of the medical faculty are assigned to duty at the infirmary. For the service rendered by this department the students are charged 2 pesos each a semester. The agricultural college at Los Baños has a dispensary which furnishes free medical attendance and medicine to the students.

In 1927 the board of regents ordered the enforcement of the provisions of the Hernando Act, which required public-school students to adopt uniform dress for school use, for reasons of economy and to discourage luxury in dress. Divergent views have been expressed in regard to the effectiveness of the act. Some contend that it has failed to achieve its purpose and others claim that it has produced a salutary effect upon student life. In the university the law has not been rigorously enforced.

Student organizations and activities are supervised by a university committee, in coöperation with the dean of men and the dean of women. Student publications, excursions, and dances must be authorized by this faculty committee. Since 1917 the students have published a weekly newspaper, at first called *The Varsity News* and later *The Philippine Collegian*. The editors of the paper have all been

students in residence. The publication has helped to foster an *esprit de corps* among the students of the different colleges. Another student publication is *The Philippinensian*, which first appeared in 1915; it is an annual publication, containing photographs of the faculty and the graduates of the year of publication as well as informative articles about university activities. It serves as a souvenir for the students.

Organization of students by classes has been fostered in the university. Each class elects its own officers and participates in university activities.

By a ruling of the university council in 1925, the number of dances students may hold during the academic year has been limited, and the ruling requires that a debate or a literary-musical program shall precede each dance. This is a part of the policy of the university to exercise control over the social life of its students.

*Student
Council*

Since the foundation of the university, the student body has been given a voice in the management of student affairs. A form of student government has been established, with a university student council as its central agency. It began to show signs of active life in 1924. Composed of delegates of the students of all the schools and colleges under the university, it has become the connecting link between the university authorities and the student body. It has helped to maintain discipline among the students. Upon recommendation of this body, the board of regents ruled that every

student should pay one peso a semester for the support of the student organ *The Philippine Collegian* and fifty centavos to defray the expenses of the student council. In 1929 it helped finance the University Press, in coöperation with the alumni association. The constructive work of this student organization has elicited praise from the university authorities.

The university authorities, recognizing the usefulness of the office of adviser of students, appointed in June, 1925, Professor Henry Townsend, of the faculty of the College of Liberal Arts, as dean of men. Aside from its ordinary duties the office has become a kind of employment agency to help needy students find remunerative work in the city.

*Dean of
Men*

When Dean Jorge Bocobo became acting president in 1927, the weekly convocation was revived, at which addresses were delivered by university professors and men distinguished in public life. Some convocations were devoted to discussions of student affairs, led by the university student council, and to literary and musical programs. These convocations, though at times poorly attended, have helped to foster a university spirit. The poor attendance may be explained by the inadequacy of the place of convocation, which is but an ugly temporary structure on the campus and forbidding during the rainy season.

*Convoca-
tions*

The number of students in the university has been increasing. The following figures show the enrollment since the establishment

*University
Enrollment*

<i>Academic year.</i>	<i>Total enrollment.</i>
1908-1909	67
1909-1910	832
1910-1911	1,213
1911-1912	1,400
1912-1913	1,398
1913-1914	1,502
1914-1915	2,075
1915-1916	2,401
1916-1917	2,975
1917-1918	3,289
1918-1919	3,312
1919-1920	3,409
1920-1921	3,838
1921-1922	4,693
1922-1923	4,839
1923-1924	5,993
1924-1925	5,540
1925-1926	5,980
1926-1927	6,464
1927-1928	7,533
1928-1929	7,498
1929-1930	7,849

The student body is composed mainly of Filipinos, but there are also some foreigners. During the academic year 1928-1929 there were among the students 24 Americans, 54 Chinese, 9 Japanese, 4 Spaniards, 2 Englishmen, 10 Siamese, 1 French, 5 Portuguese, 2 Syrians, and 1 Austrian.

*Women
Students*

Since the opening of the university women have been admitted to all its schools and colleges on the same footing with men. The number of women students has steadily increased. During the academic year 1915-1916, 171 women were enrolled; in 1928-1929 the number rose to 2,172. These figures indicate the grow-

ing popularity of higher education among Filipino women. The following table shows the distribution of women students among the different schools and colleges of the university during the academic year 1928-1929:

<i>School or college.</i>	<i>Women students.</i>
Cebu Junior College	44
College of Liberal Arts	563
College of Education	497
College of Medicine	63
College of Pharmacy	158
College of Dentistry	65
College of Engineering	0
School of Surveying	0
College of Law	11
College of Agriculture	27
College of Veterinary Science	1
School of Sanitation	0
School of Forestry	0
Conservatory of Music	219
School of Fine Arts	38
University High School	159
School of Nursing	327

Among the departments of the university with collegiate rank, the College of Liberal Arts had the largest number of women students in 1928-1929. The majority of these students were taking courses preparatory to entrance to the different professional schools under the university. Of the professional schools, the College of Education had the largest number of women students.

Like the men students, the women are housed in private residences and dormitories, many of which are located around the university campus.

Since 1925, by a ruling of the university council, women students must be chaperoned by a woman member of the faculty when attending dances, picnics, or other social functions. Women students have always been encouraged to participate in university activities, under certain conditions, to protect them against public criticism. They have organized a woman's club, with students as officers and the dean of women as adviser.

*Dean of
Women*

In 1916, in view of the increasing number of women students, the board of regents deemed it necessary to appoint a woman member of the faculty to act as adviser and director of the women students. The first women to fill this office were Doctor Maria Paz Mendoza-Guazon of the faculty of the College of Medicine who was designated dean of women, and Miss Ramona S. Tirona of the College of Liberal Arts faculty, as assistant dean. Later, one dean of women and one assistant dean were appointed to take charge of the women students in the Colleges of Liberal Arts, Law, and Education, and another dean of women was appointed for the Colleges of Medicine, Pharmacy, and Dentistry.

*University
Graduates*

The first university commencement was held in 1911. Ten degrees were conferred: Four bachelor of arts (two-year course), one bachelor of science in agriculture, two bachelor of agriculture, and three doctor of medicine. Ten years later, in 1921, the number of degrees conferred was 369; in March, 1927, the number of degrees conferred was 867. The total number of degrees that the university has conferred up

to the time of writing is 6,622. This figure does not include the certificates that have been issued by the non-collegiate departments.

The university has conferred honorary degrees upon distinguished persons. The first recipient of an honorary degree from the university, that of doctor of laws, was the chief justice of the Supreme Court, Cayetano Arellano, now deceased. The others were Father José Algue, a Jesuit astronomer and for many years director of the Manila Observatory, the Filipino botanist Leon Ma. Guerrero, the jurists Manuel Araullo and Victorino Mapa, the scholar Trinidad H. Pardo de Tavera, Governor Francis Burton Harrison, General Leonard Wood, Vice-Governor Newton W. Gilbert, and the Filipino statesmen Manuel Quezon and Sergio Osmeña. Upon Miss Librada Avelino, director of a private school for girls in Manila, was conferred an honorary degree of master of pedagogy, in 1930.

*Honorary
Degrees*

The Alumni Association of the University of the Philippines was organized in 1913, upon the initiative of Mr. Justice George A. Malcolm, then dean of the College of Law, and with the coöperation of Jorge Vargas, Alexander Reyes, and Victoriano Yamzon, university graduates. Its objects were to foster a strong university spirit and to maintain friendship among the graduates. The constitution was drafted in April, 1913, and provided for the election of a president, a vice-president, a secretary-treasurer, and a board of directors composed of one delegate from each college. Subsequent amendments to the constitution have increased the

*Alumni
Association*

number of vice-presidents to two, and separated the offices of secretary and treasurer. One of the activities of the alumni organization is the holding of annual reunions, generally during commencement week, and participation in university celebrations. The association has an organ, called *The University Alumnus*, a quarterly. It has also started a drive for funds among the alumni for the construction of an alumni hall. Through its initiative, a university press has been established.

Representation of the alumni body on the board of regents of the university, authorized by legislative enactment, has strengthened the alumni association. There is now a movement among the alumni to increase further the representation of the graduates in the administration of the university by having the president of the association sit on the board of regents.

Buildings

The university started in some old buildings bequeathed by the Spanish era and in other temporary buildings. In his first annual report the university president called buildings the "greatest need of the university." The university was given 250,000 pesos in the 1912 appropriation for public improvements. Immediately steps were taken for the construction of the first permanent building of the university, which is known as University Hall, on Padre Faura Street. On the first floor of this hall the administrative offices were installed, and on the second floor the offices of faculty members and classrooms.

Through larger appropriations granted by the legislature, several permanent buildings have been added to the university's physical plant, both in Manila and in Los Baños. Besides the legislative appropriations, the tuition fees paid by students have been made available since 1926 for the construction of buildings, with the approval of the legislature and upon recommendation of the president, Doctor Rafael Palma. The original University Hall has been extended; a sister building called Rizal Hall has been constructed opposite it, and between these halls stands the new library building. On another part of the campus in Manila are the chemistry and engineering buildings. The construction of other edifices will soon follow.

The university has depended chiefly upon state support, given annually by the legislature. For this reason it has not been able to rely upon a permanent amount of income. The practice was for the board of regents to draw up an estimate of the expenses of the university for one year and request the legislature to appropriate the amount. In 1912, the grant was ₱575,000.00; in 1914, ₱625,000.00; in 1917, ₱739,200.00; and since 1924, ₱1,895,930.00. The university's income is increased by tuition fees, the sale of agricultural produce, interest on its bank deposits, donations, library fees and fines, and fines for late registration. In 1924 the amount of its income from those sources was ₱228,035.18; in 1925, ₱311,220.85; in 1926, ₱371,736.96; in 1927, ₱420,949.66; and

*University
Finances*

in 1928, P582,927. From the nature of its source this income is unstable.

The value of the assets owned by the university in 1914 was P964,251.95, and in 1928 it was P4,770,114.44. The figures indicate the expansion of the physical plant and equipment of the university.

The university administration has favored the establishment of a permanent source of income, so that it may be able to plan ahead and be assured of adequate funds. With this aim in view, President Palma and the alumni body worked for the enactment of the Land Grant Act (No. 3608), which set aside 10,000 hectares of the public land for the use of the university. Although the size of the area allotted to the university is too small (the original request was 200,000 hectares), yet a beginning has been made to endow the university with a dependable source of income.

As yet no important bequests, such as those received by American universities, have been given to the university. Doctor Maria Paz Mendoza-Guazon set a good example to other wealthy Filipinos when she gave 20,000 pesos in 1924 for the construction of an amphitheater in the Philippine General Hospital which has been named for her late husband, Doctor Potenciano Guazon, and which is now known as the Guazon Memorial Pavilion. A Negros land owner, Mr. Josefino de la Peña, donated one A. W. Smith eight-horse-power roller in 1923, which was installed in the College of Agriculture. The student body in 1924 raised 2,300 pesos for the purchase of the statue of Science

and Art, which adorns the façade of University Hall. The late Doctor Ariston Bautista, Mr. Mariano Limjap, and Mrs. Dolores de la Rama Bailon, wealthy Filipinos, established scholarship funds in the university. The generosity of these donors should serve as an incentive to other Filipinos to help the university.

The university began its life with very inadequate library facilities. At the beginning, the students had to borrow books and periodicals from the public library of Manila and the library of the Bureau of Science, while to the faculty were accorded the privileges of the library of the Military Information Bureau, located in Fort Santiago. The university built up its own library rather slowly. In 1915 it owned 4,774 volumes, worth 29,806.34 pesos, distributed among the different colleges. In 1916, 472 volumes were added to the university library. Until 1925 the annual appropriation for library equipment and books did not exceed 8,000 pesos, but in that year the amount allotted in the university budget for books was 10,000 pesos and another sum of 3,000 pesos was appropriated for the purchase of furniture and equipment. In 1926 the appropriation for books was increased to 15,000 pesos, and 5,014 volumes were added to the library. Since that year the university library has become one of the deposit stations for United States Government documents. It also systematized the exchange of publications with other institutions. By 1929 the university library consisted of 54,854 volumes and 15,199 pamphlets. It re-

*University
Library*

ceived 750 periodicals, 435 of which were paid subscriptions and 315 were gifts.

For the further improvement of the library, a library fee of 5 pesos a year has been charged each student since 1929.

A library board was created in 1924. This body was in charge of apportioning the library fund among the different schools and colleges of the university and formulating library policies, rules, and regulations. Since the organization of this board there has been improvement in the selection of books and in the distribution of library funds.

In the interest of the library, the university in 1929 sent abroad its librarian, Professor Gabriel A. Bernardo, to visit the important university libraries in Europe and America.

The library collection and the number of readers greatly increased, but the library was very inadequately housed until 1931. The need for a permanent building was felt many years ago, but it was not until 1927 that the board of regents authorized the construction of a library building. The foundation of the building was laid in November, 1928, and it was completed in 1931.

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE

As agriculture is our chief industry, it is natural that the first college to be organized as a part of our state university was the College of Agriculture. It was opened in June, 1909, on the site originally chosen by the Bureau of Education for an agricultural school. It is situated about 3 kilometers from the town of

Los Baños, Laguna, which is 65.5 kilometers from Manila. The college occupies a tract of land the soil of which is sufficiently diversified to permit the cultivation of practically every important crop of the Philippines. In subsequent years additional tracts of land were purchased. The college in 1930 occupied about 397 hectares of land.

At the beginning the college admitted students who were only intermediate-school graduates; for, had it required a higher academic preparation, scarcely a dozen students would have been admitted. However, in 1916 the board of regents approved a resolution providing for progressive admission requirements to the effect that, for the academic year 1917-1918, only students who had completed at least the first two years of the secondary school would be admitted; for the year 1918-1919, completion of the third year of the secondary course would be the entrance requirement; and for the year 1919-1920, completion of the whole secondary course would be required of all new students.

*Admission
Require-
ments*

The enrollment in the College of Agriculture has steadily increased. In 1909-1910 it had 56 students; in 1910-1911, 95; in 1911-1912, 186; in 1912-1913, 253; in 1913-1914, 294; in 1914-1915, 375; in 1915-1916, 444; in 1916-1917, 431; in 1917-1918, 564; in 1918-1919, 363; in 1919-1920, 444; in 1920-1921, 519; in 1921-1922, 622; in 1922-1923, 674; in 1923-1924, 671; in 1924-1925, 573; in 1925-1926, 605; in 1926-1927, 703; in 1927-1928, 865; and in 1928-1929, 881. Of the 881 students in

Enrollment

1928-1929, 27 were women and 2 were Chinese, 5 Siamese, and 1 French.

*Housing of
Students*

The housing of students was one of the problems of the college at the start. In view of the lack of boarding houses and the inability of the college to provide dormitories, the students were allowed to erect their own cottages on the campus. The students in 1913 formed a coöperative association, under the guidance of a member of the faculty, Professor E. M. Ledyard, which built a number of cottages and a mess hall. By virtue of a legislative act, two student dormitories were built in 1927.

Buildings

The college started without buildings of its own. Classes were held in the houses of the faculty and in tents borrowed from the Bureau of Education. Since then permanent buildings have been erected, so that in 1930 the college occupied twenty-two concrete buildings. In addition, it had several temporary structures made of wood and bamboo. Its physical plant has been so improved that it is now fully capable of carrying on its mission.

Instruction

The first course of study organized was a six-year course leading to the degree of bachelor of agriculture. This was designed for students who had finished the intermediate course only. For high-school graduates a four-year course was later offered, at the completion of which the degree of bachelor of science in agriculture was granted. The courses of study have been revised several times since 1909 and, at the time of writing, they are as follows:

The four-year general course, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in agriculture.

The four-year course in animal husbandry, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in animal husbandry.

The combined six-year course in animal husbandry and veterinary science, leading to the degree of doctor of veterinary medicine.

The four-year course in sugar technology, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in sugar technology.

The course in agricultural education.

The graduate course, leading to the degree of master of science.

The subjects of study in the general course are agricultural chemistry, agronomy, mathematics, entomology, rural economics, zoology, physics, animal husbandry, English, plant physiology, plant pathology, agricultural engineering, physical education, military science, and one summer of farm experience.

The course in animal husbandry includes the study of animal nutrition and breeding, and horse, cattle, dairy, swine and poultry husbandry.

The course in sugar technology consists of cane-field practice, technical sugar analysis, thermodynamics, mill practice, factory management, and sugar-machinery design.

The course in agricultural education is a teacher's course, intended for prospective principals and teachers in agricultural schools who have completed the required courses for the degree of bachelor of science in agriculture. It is a one-year course, at the completion of

which a certificate in agricultural education is granted. A rural high school was established in 1929, to serve as a practice school of the department of agricultural education. Its curriculum is similar to that of the rural high schools under the Bureau of Education.

The college offers graduate courses which lead to the master's degree for holders of the bachelor of science degree.

SCHOOL OF FORESTRY

Establishment

The need for trained foresters was realized by the administration with the organization of the Bureau of Forestry as one of the entities of the government. The only way to meet this demand was to establish a forestry school. The plan was considered in 1902, but was not carried out until 1910, when the bill presented by Jaime de Veyra creating a forestry school was passed by the Philippine Assembly.

In June, 1910, the forestry school was opened under the College of Agriculture, under whose administration it remained until 1916, when legislative enactment established it as one of the independent schools of the University of the Philippines.

Location

The Forestry School is located in the Mount Makiling National Botanic Garden, which is about 5 kilometers from Los Baños, Laguna. It is housed in a concrete building and five strong-material houses which serve as dormitories and mess hall. The forest and about 40 hectares of plantations of forest trees serve as the laboratory for the study of botany, silviculture, and other subjects in forestry. The school is also provided with laboratory and field

equipment, such as microscopes, surveying and drafting instruments, and lumbering implements.

At first the school offered only a two-year course for forest rangers. The subjects studied during the two years were botany, mathematics, English, forest physiography, dendrology, forest engineering, silviculture, woodmanship, military science, Spanish, wood technology, management, and forest administration. Then, in 1912, a course leading to the degree of bachelor of science in forestry was organized. It was a three-year course and open to the graduates of the ranger's course who had had at least two years' field experience in the Bureau of Forestry. The course consisted of the study of chemistry, plant pathology, entomology, physics, physiography, forest administration and management, forest engineering, forest economics, forest protection, forest policy and history, silviculture, wood technology, forest utilization, forest investigation, arboriculture, English, and mathematics.

The School of Forestry still offers these two courses of study.

The students are organized into the Philippine Forestry Club. They manage their own affairs through this club. They are provided with musical instruments and athletic equipment. They conduct their own mess, spending about 16 pesos a month each for meals. They are also provided with cottages, but they bring their own bedding, mosquito nets, and ponchos. In addition, they are required to provide them-

Curriculum

Students

selves with a bolo having a blade not less than 40 centimeters long and a scabbard.

In the ranger course tuition is free and there are no laboratory fees. The Bureau of Forestry awards scholarships to a few promising students. The holders of these scholarships must serve the bureau after graduation. A number of foreigners have studied in this school.

Graduates

The school sent out its first graduates in 1912, numbering sixteen forest rangers. In 1915 two were graduated with the degree of bachelor of science in forestry. By 1927 a total of 353 had received the ranger's certificate, and three, the degree of bachelor of science in forestry.

The graduates have entered the government service, and some who have completed their contracts with the government are employed by different governments and companies in the East Indies, and by lumber companies in the Islands. The Chinese graduates of the school have returned to China and are in the forest service there. In the Orient there is a large demand for trained foresters.

THE COLLEGE OF VETERINARY SCIENCE

Foundation

The College of Veterinary Science was opened in June, 1910. It fulfilled a long-felt need for trained veterinarians to care for the animal industry of the country.

The college was first housed in buildings adjoining the animal quarantine station at Pandacan, Manila. Later, it occupied buildings and sheds at the corner of Tayuman Street and Rizal Avenue, adjoining San Lazaro Hos-

pital. In 1919 the college was transferred to the campus of the College of Agriculture, Los Baños, Laguna.

The college offered a five-year course of study leading to the degree of doctor of veterinary medicine (D.V.M.). Since 1925 the course has been reduced to four years. The subjects of study are chemistry, zoology, veterinary anatomy, embryology, botany, histology, bacteriology, physiology, pharmacy, parasitology, surgery, hygiene, jurisprudence, autopsy, medicine, obstetrics, and physical education and military science.

Instruction

The Second Philippine Legislature created twenty scholarships in the college. The beneficiaries of these government scholarships are selected each semester by the faculty scholarship committee. Some municipal and provincial governments have also established scholarships. The late Filipino millionaire Mariano Limjap created two scholarships.

Scholarships

The college does not charge a tuition fee, but every student is required to make a deposit of 15 pesos upon entrance to cover any loss of apparatus and books or any damage to university property. He must also pay an entrance fee of 5 pesos, a registration fee of 5 pesos every semester, a library fee of 5 pesos a year, a medical fee of 2 pesos a semester, an athletic fee of 3 pesos a year, a student council fee of 1 peso a year, a subscription fee for the *Philippine Collegian* of 1 peso a semester, and laboratory fees of 15 pesos for chemistry and 5 for zoology.

Student Fees

Enrollment

The enrollment has increased very slowly. During the academic year 1911-1912 the number of students was 14; in 1912-1913, 27; in 1913-1914, 31; in 1914-1915, 28; in 1915-1916, 30; 1916-1917, 35; and in 1917-1918, 70. The largest enrollment, 99, was recorded in 1928.

The president of the university, in his annual report for the academic year 1913-1914, pointed out the smallness of the number of students enrolled in the college, which indicated lack of interest on the part of Filipinos in the profession. He requested the board of regents to consider the advisability of closing the college. The board took no action, however.

Graduates

The graduates of the college must take the government examination before they may practice. The majority of the graduates are employed by the government, and a few are engaged in private practice.

The college graduated five students in 1914. One of these was an American and four were Filipinos. In the following year only two were graduated. From 1914 to 1926 the total number of graduates was 90.

THE COLLEGE OF MEDICINE

Foundation

The College of Medicine was established before the foundation of the University of the Philippines. Its name, as provided in the law that created it, was the Philippine Medical School. It was opened in 1907 in the City of Manila. It was incorporated in the University of the Philippines in 1910 and its name changed to College of Medicine and Surgery. In 1911 Dean Freer recommended that the name be

simplified by striking out "and surgery." The change was not made, however, until 1923. Now the college is officially styled College of Medicine.

At first the college occupied an old building on Malecon Drive. Then, in 1910, it moved to its present building on Herran Street, adjoining the Bureau of Science and on the same campus as the Philippine General Hospital. This is a modern concrete building with a frontage of 68.54 meters. The construction of an annex was begun in 1926 and completed in 1928. In the main building are the administration offices, lecture rooms, an amphitheater, the city morgue, an autopsy room, and laboratories. In the annex there are more laboratories, and the School of Pharmacy is also housed there.

The Clinics

Clinical instruction is given in the Philippine General Hospital, in San Lazaro Hospital, and in the dispensaries of the Anti-Tuberculosis Society and La Gota de Leche, the latter an institution for the feeding and care of infants of the poor. The Philippine General Hospital was built by the government in 1908 and was opened in September, 1910. It is a modern, concrete structure which will have a capacity of 1,500 patients when all the wards are built. At present there are about 600 beds in the hospital, 500 of which are for free patients. The hospital is practically under the control of the College of Medicine, its director is the dean of the college, and its physicians are members of the teaching staff of the college.

Buildings

*Admission
Require-
ments*

At the beginning high-school graduates were admitted upon passing an entrance examination. It was found, however, that they were not sufficiently prepared for the medical course. The requirement of one year of preparatory study in the Junior College of Liberal Arts was, therefore, introduced in 1913. Since 1920 the preparatory course has been lengthened to two years and an entrance examination has been required since 1927.

Curriculum

The length of the course since the beginning has been five years, even when American medical colleges followed only the four-year course of instruction. The American Association of Medical Colleges, recognizing the high standard of the college, admitted it in 1913 to membership under Class A, the highest class of medical schools.

Since 1930 the courses of study have been given in twelve departments: Anatomy, physiology, pathology, pharmacology, hygiene, medicine, surgery, obstetrics, pediatrics ophthalmology and otolaryngology, gynecology, and legal medicine.

The first year of the medical course comprises the study of gross anatomy, histology, biochemistry, embriology, neuro-anatomy, and physiology. The greater part of the time is devoted to laboratory work. In the second year the student is to take up bacteriology, pathology, parasitology, pharmacology, physical diagnosis, minor surgery, surgical anatomy, and the principles of surgery. Clinical work in the hospital is a requirment for the third and fourth years. In the fifth year the

student is to work as interne in the hospital. As internes the students will be required to make complete clinical histories; to examine blood, urine, stools, and gastric contents; to assist in maternity cases; to serve as ambulance surgeon; and the like.

Since 1915 the tuition fee has been 50 pesos a semester. A new student was required also to pay an entrance fee of 5 pesos and to make a deposit of 20 pesos to cover breakage or loss of any university property. In addition, the students had to pay the usual laboratory fees. *Fees*

The first dean, who was also one of the founders of the Philippine Medical School, was Doctor Paul Caspar Freer, an American. Upon his death at Baguio in April, 1912, Doctor William Everett Musgrave was appointed in his stead. Doctor Musgrave was then a professor of clinical medicine. The members of the teaching staff were in the majority of cases Americans, but they were gradually replaced by qualified Filipinos. In 1917 Doctor Fernando Calderon, vice-dean, was appointed dean, to take the place of Doctor Musgrave, who resigned. By 1925 all the members of the faculty were Filipinos. *Faculty*

An idea of the enrollment in the college may be had from the following figures: 1911, 56; 1912, 73; 1913, 104; 1914, 113; 1915, 159; 1916, 172; 1917, 205; 1918, 152; 1919, 147; 1920, 141; 1921, 139; 1922, 131; 1923, 146; 1924, 187; 1925, 233; 1926, 284. *Enrollment*

In view of the limited space and appropriation for the college, it has become necessary

since 1927 to restrict the number of students that should be admitted every year.

Graduates

From 1910 to 1926 the college conferred 292 degrees of doctor of medicine. A number of the graduates were women. Among them was Doctor Maria Paz Mendoza-Guazon, the first woman to obtain the degree of doctor of medicine from the college. The services of these graduates are greatly needed in the Philippine Islands.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TROPICAL MEDICINE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

This school was organized in 1914 under the College of Medicine. It was intended for holders of the degree of doctor of medicine. It offered a one-year course, leading to the degree of doctor of tropical medicine (D. T. M.), and a two-year course, leading to the degree of doctor of public health (D. P. H.). The candidate for these degrees, besides taking the prescribed courses, must prepare a thesis embodying the results of research on a subject approved by the chief of the department in which the subject belonged.

The enrollment from 1914 to 1919 was as follows: 1914, 22; 1915, 57; 1916, 29; 1917, 34; 1918, 17; 1919, 21.

The school was closed in 1920.

THE SCHOOL OF PHARMACY

Establishment

The board of regents in 1910 authorized the offering of the course in pharmacy in the College of Liberal Arts, appropriating 18,000 pesos for the purchase of the necessary equipment. The course was offered in 1911. When, in 1914, the enrollment had increased to 54, the

board of regents transferred the course to the College of Medicine and Surgery and established the School of Pharmacy as a department of the college. Doctor Andrew G. Du Mez was appointed director. In 1917, Doctor Du Mez was succeeded by a Filipino, Doctor Mariano V. del Rosario.

The school offered a three-year course, leading to the degree of graduate in pharmacy. The degree of graduate in pharmacy was changed to that of pharmaceutical chemist in 1921. The courses of instruction in the three-year course were botany, chemistry, English, mathematics, physics, zoology, German or French, pharmacy, bacteriology, hygiene, pharmacology, physiology, and drug-store practice. The practice work was performed in the Philippine General Hospital pharmacy, which was managed by the school. This course complied with the provisions of the law regulating the profession of pharmacy in the Philippine Islands.

There was also offered a four-year course which gave advanced instruction in bacteriology, botany, chemistry, and pharmacy, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in pharmacy. Beginning with the year 1930, the School of Pharmacy offered only the four-year course, suppressing the three-year course to conform with the new law, known as Act No. 3536, passed by the Philippine Legislature

The entrance requirement since the beginning has been the completion of the secondary-school course.

The following figures indicate the enrollment during the period from 1914 to 1926: 1914, 54;

Curriculum

Enrollment

1915, 74; 1916, 64; 1917, 83; 1918, 105; 1919, 123; 1920, 175; 1921, 189; 1922, 195; 1923, 193; 1924, 204; 1925, 188; 1926, 186.

The pharmacy course has attracted a large number of women. Of the 188 students enrolled in 1925, for instance, 157 were women.

Graduates

Before graduates in pharmacy are permitted to practice in the Philippine Islands they must pass the government examination given by the Board of Pharmaceutical Examiners and Inspectors. From 1914 to 1926 the school graduated a total of 340. Of these 96 held the degree of graduate in pharmacy; 203, pharmaceutical chemist; and 44, bachelor of science in pharmacy.

SCHOOL OF DENTISTRY

Establishment

In 1915 the board of regents authorized the establishment of a department of dentistry in the College of Medicine and Surgery. The need for dentists in the Philippine Islands was so great that the board of regents offered to remit the tuition fees of twenty graduates who would agree to serve the government for two years. Doctor Louis Ottofy was designated head of the department. The department was later organized into a school of dentistry, but remained under the College of Medicine. Upon the resignation of Doctor Ottofy, Doctor Domiciano J. Sandoval was appointed director of the school.

Curriculum

The school adopted the four-year course, as followed by reputable American dental schools. At the completion of the course the student was awarded the degree of doctor of dental

surgery (D. D. S.). The admission requirement was the completion of the secondary-school course. In 1923 the course leading to the degree of doctor of dental surgery was reduced to three years, and a four-year course was offered, leading to the degree of doctor of dental medicine. The three-year course consisted in the study of anatomy, chemistry, dental anatomy, prosthetic technic, physiology, inlay and crown and bridge technic, operative technic, dental metallurgy, pathology, bacteriology, dental pathology, prosthetic dentistry, operative dentistry, and dental protozoology.

In the fourth year the subjects required were principles of surgery, orthodontia, comparative dental anatomy, dental jurisprudence, operative and clinical dentistry, prosthetic dentistry, oral surgery, general anesthesia, radiology, and dental history, ethics, and economics.

The practical work was carried on in the free dispensary of the Philippine General Hospital.

The school started with 10 students in 1915. In 1925 the number increased to 101, 43 of whom were women. The largest enrollment, 373, was registered in 1928.

Enrollment

From 1919 to 1927 a total of 76 students graduated from the school. Before being allowed to practice their profession in the Philippines, dentists must take a government examination.

Graduates

The board of regents, after investigating the internal dissensions in the school, decided to close it in 1931.

*Closing of
the School*

THE PHILIPPINE GENERAL HOSPITAL SCHOOL OF NURSING

The school of nursing is also under the College of Medicine. The members of the faculty of the college teach in this school. Its curriculum must be approved by the university council and its graduates must also be recommended for graduation by the council.

The school grants two kinds of certificate; namely, graduate in nursing and postgraduate in practical obstetrics, medical nursing, and dietetics.

Intermediate-school graduates were formerly admitted to the first year in the school. The admission requirement has been gradually raised to the completion of the secondary course. The students are given free board and lodging in the nurses' home, on the hospital campus. They are required to practice in the hospital under the supervision of the superintendent of nurses.

Besides the school of nursing in Manila, there is another one in Cebú, which is also under the control of the College of Medicine. The enrollment in both schools from 1916 to 1926 was as follows: 1916, 376; 1917, 315; 1918, 364; 1919, 226; 1920, 273; 1921, 294; 1922, 293; 1923, 435; 1924, 367; 1925, 359; 1926, 380. The majority of the students were women. Of the 359 enrolled in 1925, 304 were women and only 55 were men. A few Siamese students have enrolled in the school in Manila.

THE SCHOOL OF HYGIENE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

In order to meet the demand for trained health workers, the Philippine Legislature in 1927 provided for the opening of a school of hygiene and public health. In addition to the government appropriation for the support of this school, the Rockefeller Foundation has offered to help defray the expenses of the school. In 1929 it gave 20,000 pesos and paid the salary of two professors for two years.

Establishment

The school is temporarily housed in the building of the College of Medicine, but will move into its own building, now under construction, when this shall have been completed. This is a concrete structure facing Herran Street and adjoining the College of Medicine buildings.

The faculty of this school is composed of qualified men from the Colleges of Medicine and Engineering, Philippine Health Service, Bureau of Science, Public Welfare Commissioner's Office, International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation, United States Quarantine Water District, and the Medical Corps of the United States Army and Navy. The chairman of the faculty and director of the school is the dean of the College of Medicine.

Faculty

Enrollment was limited in 1927 to 15 and in 1928 to 18. When the building shall have been completed, more students will be admitted.

Students

The students must be holders of the doctor of medicine degree. They pay a tuition fee of 30 pesos a semester and the usual laboratory fees. One of the Bailon de la Rama scholarships is open to students in this school.

The graduates are given preference by the Philippine Health Service in choosing men for government posts. Some private firms also need the services of these graduates.

Course of Study

The course of study may be completed in forty-one weeks. The academic year is divided into quarters. The subjects required are sanitary bacteriology, parasitology, public-health organization and administration, child hygiene, children of the state and welfare activities, school medical inspection, maternal hygiene, vital statistics, chemical hygiene, sanitary engineering, physiological and industrial hygiene, mental hygiene, tropical medicine, epidemiology, immunology, practical public-health administration, military and naval hygiene, maritime quarantine, hospital management, sanitary legislation, and a special course in tuberculosis control.

A certificate in public health (C. P. H.) is granted upon the completion of this course of study.

THE COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING

Establishment

The College of Engineering was opened in June, 1910, with William Joseph Colbert as acting dean. It offered a five-year course in civil engineering to high-school graduates. In 1911 the entrance requirement was raised, making a two-year preparatory course a prerequisite for entrance, and the professional course was shortened to four years. In response to the popular demand for a shorter course, the board of regents in 1914 authorized the offering of a four-year course, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in civil engineering, to high-

school graduates who presented an additional credit in solid geometry. A five-year course, leading to the degree of master of science in civil engineering, was also organized. Courses in mechanical, electrical, and mining engineering were organized in 1915. The first two years of all courses were identical, so that students began their specialization in the third year. Changes in these courses were introduced later.

In 1930, three curricula were offered; namely, civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering. All the different curricula had a common first year. The subjects of study, with the exception of drawing, were given in the College of Liberal Arts; they were mathematics, English, social science or Spanish, and chemistry. All the courses leading to the degree of bachelor of science were four years long. In the civil-engineering course the subjects of study, beginning with the second and up to the fourth year, were calculus, general physics, plane surveying, topographic surveying, English for engineers, general geology, biological problems in engineering, wood shop, technical mechanics, advanced surveying, testing laboratory, roads and pavements, construction materials, engineering reports, modern framed structures, testing of cement and concrete, elements of internal-combustion engines, elements of steam engines, elementary electrical engineering, electrical laboratory, financial engineering, hydraulics, structural design, reenforced-concrete construction, wooden structures, hydraulic laboratory, contracts and specifications, irriga-

Curriculum

tion engineering, applied hydraulics, masonry and foundations, reenforced-concrete design, engineering problems, and sanitary science and public health.

In the last three years of the mechanical-engineering course the subjects of study were calculus, general physics, engineering kinematics, introductory electrical engineering, elementary heat equipment, forge shop, machine shop, wood shop, technical mechanics, English for engineers, mechanical laboratory, thermodynamics, metallography, machine design, fuels and lubricants, elementary surveying, machinery foundations, direct-current laboratory and theory, alternating-current laboratory and theory, applied electrical engineering, contracts and specifications, hydraulic laboratory, financial engineering, hydraulics, steam engines and turbines, refrigeration, dynamics of gas engine and auxiliaries, industrial organization, mechanical laboratory, gas and oil engines, hydraulic machinery, steam power-plant equipment, and industrial administration. Fourth-year students were also required to take a seminar course and make inspection trips to power stations, machine shops, manufacturing plants, and the like.

The last three years of the course in electrical engineering were devoted to the study of calculus, general physics, wood, forge and machine shop, introductory electrical engineering, engineering kinematics, elementary heat equipment, English for engineers, technical mechanics and strength of materials, elementary surveying, machinery foundations, thermodyna-

mics, mechanical laboratory, fuels and lubricants, direct-current theory and laboratory, engineering mathematics, alternating-current theory and laboratory, electrical drafting, advanced electrical laboratory, electrical equipment, advanced electrical engineering, electrical-communication engineering, advanced electrical laboratory, electrical power-plant design, electrical transmission and distribution, electrical engineering seminar, financial engineering, hydraulics, hydraulic machinery, and gas and oil engines.

The following figures indicate the number of students during a period of fifteen years, from 1910 to 1925: 1910, 22; 1911, 11; 1912, 5; 1913, 12; 1914, 40; 1915, 47; 1916, 74; 1917, 108; 1918, 144; 1919, 146; 1920, 195; 1921, 290; 1922, 404; 1923, 473; 1924, 512; 1925, 561. The increase in enrollment since 1917 was rapid, and might be attributed to the many opportunities for the engineer in the Philippines.

Enrollment

From 1917 to 1926 the college conferred 132 degrees of bachelor of science in civil engineering; from 1924 to 1926, 6 degrees of bachelor of science in electrical engineering; from 1920 to 1926, 54 degrees of bachelor of science in mechanical engineering; from 1915 to 1917, 8 degrees of civil engineering; from 1917 to 1926, 18 degrees of master of science in civil engineering; in 1922 and 1923, 4 degrees of master of science in mechanical engineering.

Graduation

SCHOOL OF SURVEYING

Under the College of Engineering is a school of surveying. It was formerly the school of

surveying of the Bureau of Lands, but was transferred to the university in 1925. It was intended for the training of surveyors for the government service, but it was open to anybody when it passed to the control of the university. The admission requirement was the completion of the secondary-school course.

Curriculum

The school offered a two-year course, leading to the title of associate in surveying. In the first year the subjects of study were trigonometry, algebra, English, Spanish, drawing, mapping, engineering lectures, elementary law, public land laws, topographic surveying and plane surveying; in the second year, advanced surveying, Spanish, public land laws, mining law, law of property, isolated land survey and computation, cadastral land survey, geology, English, mapping, land registration, and surveying accounting.

A higher degree, that of master surveyor, was granted to the holder of associate in surveying who had had three years' practical experience, presented a thesis, and passed an oral examination on the subject matter of the thesis.

There were 51 students enrolled in the school in 1928.

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS

*Academy
and Junior
College of
Liberal Arts*

This academy was the predecessor of the College of Liberal Arts of the university. Its beginning could be traced back to 1904, when the Philippine Normal School admitted students who did not intend to become teachers, but desired to prepare themselves for the study of law, medicine, engineering, agriculture, and

cultural subjects. In 1909 these students, numbering 218, were organized into an insular school, which was authorized by the government to grant the bachelor of arts degree upon the completion of a two-year course above the high school. The school was popularly known as the Academy and Junior College of Liberal Arts.

In 1910 the College of Liberal Arts of the University was organized with George W. Beattie as acting dean. The academy was closed and its students were transferred to the college. The college had two divisions; namely, junior and senior. In the junior college was offered a two-year curriculum, leading to the bachelor of arts degree, which was the equivalent of the bachelor of arts degree granted by Spanish colleges and the French lycées. The admission requirement was the completion of the secondary-school course. The senior college offered a three-year course, leading to the degree of master of arts or master of science, dependent upon the major subject.

*Estal-
ment
Colle,
Liber
Arts*

In 1918 the courses of study were reorganized. The course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts was lengthened to four years, as in American colleges. At the completion of two years of college work the title of associate in arts was granted. In 1919 the college was authorized to confer the degrees of bachelor of philosophy and bachelor of science upon the completion of four years of prescribed work.

Curr

Instruction in 1930 was given by fifteen departments; namely, anthropology and sociol-

ogy, botany, chemistry, economics, geology and geography, history, library science, mathematics, oriental languages, philosophy, physics, political science, Spanish, zoology, and French and German. The college offered preparatory, vocational, and general-culture courses. The preparatory courses were for the Colleges of Education, Law, and Medicine; the vocational courses were the four-year course in chemistry, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in chemistry, and the four-year curriculum in library science, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in library science.¹

The graduate courses were open to holders of the bachelor's degree and might be credited toward the master of arts or master of science degree.

Enrollment

The enrollment has steadily increased, as shown by the following figures: 1910, 160; 1911, 215; 1912, 200; 1913, 317; 1914, 391; 1915, 429; 1916, 520; 1917, 377; 1918, 517; 1919, 573; 1920, 620; 1921, 679; 1922, 667; 1923, 925; 1924, 1,153; 1925, 1,130; 1926, 1,801. Of the 1,130 students enrolled in 1925, 138 were women.

Graduation

The number of graduates from 1911 to 1926 were as follows: 879, with the degree of bachelor of arts, 52, bachelor of philosophy; 53, bachelor of science; 18, bachelor of science in chemistry; 208, bachelor of science in commerce; 3, bachelor of science in government; 6, bachelor of science in library science; 27,

¹ These curricula may be found in *General Catalogue of the University of the Philippines, 1929-1930*, pp. 98, 99.

master of arts; 18, master of science; and 597, associate in arts.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGES

The College of Liberal Arts has branches in Cebú and Vigan, which are called junior colleges. They have been established upon the insistence of the Philippine Legislature, which appropriated money for their maintenance.

*Establish-
ment*

The first of these colleges to be organized was the Junior College at Cebú, which was intended for students in the south who did not wish to continue their studies in Manila. It was opened in 1918 as a branch of the College of Liberal Arts at Manila. In November, 1918, it was made a separate college of the university, and in 1922 its official title was changed to Junior College of the University of the Philippines.

*The Junior
College at
Cebú*

Previous to 1923 the college offered the first three years of the courses in education and commerce. However, in 1923 the college was authorized to give the following courses of study: The first two years of the course in commerce, the first two years of the course in education, the first two years of the general-cultural course, the preparatory law course, and the preparatory medical course. Upon completion of any of these courses the title of associate in arts was granted.

Curriculum

The Monroe Survey Commission found plenty of room for improvement in the junior college. The teaching personnel was pronounced to be inferior, and the cost of maintenance too high; it cost 67,600 pesos to maintain the college in

*Monroe
Survey
Commission*

1925, and there were only 182 students. In the opinion of the commission, the college was a luxury.

The matter of closing the college had been considered by the board of regents, but the legislature and the citizens of Cebú had strenuously objected.

Hence, the college has been kept open and improvements were introduced in regard to personnel and equipment. In 1929 a new college building was completed. More books were added to the library and additional laboratory apparatus was purchased. Also, a more-permanent teaching staff was formed.

Enrollment

The increase in the enrollment has been very slow, as indicated by the following figures: 1918, 20; 1919, 29; 1920, 76; 1921, 112; 1922, 134; 1923, 172; 1924, 221; 1925, 182; 1926, 160; 1927, 226; 1928, 283.

Graduation

The first graduation was held in 1920, when 8 students were awarded the degree of bachelor of arts. For the succeeding years, the numbers receiving the title associate in arts were as follows: 1921, 12; 1922, 15; 1923, 25; 1924, 15; 1925, 25; 1926, 42; 1927, 34; 1928, 42. In 1924 the college granted, for the first and last time, high-school teacher's certificates; the number receiving these was 12.

*Northern
Luzon Junior
College*

The legislature in 1921, authorized the establishment of a junior college in Vigan, Ilocos Sur, for students of the northern provinces, but did not assign the necessary funds. Hence, it was not until June, 1930, that the college was opened.

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Upon recommendation of President Rafael Palma, the board of regents in 1929 authorized the establishment of the School of Business Administration under the College of Liberal Arts. The aim of the school was to train business executives, for whom there was a great demand in the Philippines.

Establishment

The school granted the degrees of bachelor of science in business administration and master of science in business administration. The course leading to the bachelor's degree was as follows:

Curriculum

First Year

English, Spanish, natural science, history of civilization, mathematics, accounting, military science, physical education.

Second Year

Spanish, fundamentals of accounting, economic development of the Philippines, economic development of the United States or economic development of Europe, money, bank credit and prices, mathematics, physical education, military science.

Third Year

Business mathematics, business law, financial organization and management, business organization and administration, three elective courses in economics, business law, statistical methods and application, marketing methods and policies, physical education.

Fourth Year

Retail-store management, research course in economics and business administration, government finance and taxation, analysis and interpretation of financial reports, seven elective courses in economics, physical education.

The methods of instruction consisted of class discussion, written reports, lectures, and visits to commercial and industrial establishments.

THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

*The School
of Educa-
tion*

The first president of the university stated in his inaugural address that one of the objects of the university should be to train teachers for the secondary schools. In 1913 the first steps were taken toward the realization of this aim. Doctor Paul Monroe, an American authority on education, was requested to outline a plan for a school of education. Doctor Monroe recommended the organization of a school of education under the College of Liberal Arts, which should offer a three-year course, at the end of which a high-school teacher's certificate could be granted. The first two years should be devoted to the study of general-cultural subjects, and the third year to professional subjects.

*University
High School*

In order to provide for a practice school for the student teachers, in 1916, a university high school was established. It began with a first-year class of 23 students. In subsequent years the complete high-school course was organized.

*The College
of Education*

In 1918 the School of Education was separated from the College of Liberal Arts and organized into a College of Education under the deanship of Professor Francisco Benitez. Instead of the high-school teacher's certificate, it granted the degree of bachelor of education upon the completion of the three-year course, and the degree of bachelor of science in education at the end of the fourth year. The faculty of the College of Liberal Arts continued to offer the cultural courses, and a few instructors were appointed to take charge of the professional subjects.

In 1921 the curriculum was reorganized. The three-year course was abolished and a four-year course in home economics, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in home economics, was introduced, thus adding one more major field to the curriculum. The first year of all curricula was under the College of Liberal Arts. The last three years were under the College of Education. Every student upon entering the college must choose two subjects which he expected to teach. His first choice was designated as his major subject, and the second, his minor. The curriculum in 1930 was the following:

Second Year

English, one foreign language, introduction to education, history of education, elementary psychology, genetic psychology, two semestral courses in the major subject, physical education, military science.

Third Year

English, two electives, educational psychology, principles of teaching, two courses in the minor subject, two courses in the major subject, physical education.

Fourth Year

Principles of education, principles of secondary education, educational psychology, educational administration or supervision of instruction in the public schools, practice teaching, tests and measurements, one course in the minor subject, two electives, physical education.

The following figures clearly justified the establishment of the college. The numbers of students who enrolled annually for a period of ten years, from 1917 to 1926, inclusive, were as follows: 1917, 238; 1918, 285; 1919, 310; 1920, 313; 1921, 373; 1922, 459; 1923, 566; 1924, 795; 1925, 998; 1926, 762. Of the 998 students en-

Enrollment

rolled in 1925, 552 were women. Since 1928 the enrollment has had to be limited.

Graduation

The college granted from 1915 to 1926, inclusive, high-school teacher's certificate to 375 students, degree of bachelor of science in education to 308, and master of arts in education to 15.

THE COLLEGE OF LAW

Establishment

The College of Law was opened in July, 1911, with 198 students in the first year and 29 in the second year, the latter having finished their first-year work in the Y. M. C. A. Law School. The freshmen had as their preparation the completion of the secondary school, which was found inadequate, for more than 30 per centum of them failed to finish the first-year course. Hence, the ruling was made in 1912 that one year of preparatory work in the College of Liberal Arts would be required for entrance and, beginning with 1913, a two-year preparatory course would be the requirement for admission. In 1930 the preparatory course given in the College of Liberal Arts consisted of the study of four semestral courses in English, four semestral courses in Spanish, history of civilization, history of modern Europe, history of the Philippines, five semestral courses in political science, philosophy, one-year course in natural science and physical education, and military drill.

Curriculum

During its early years the college offered a three- and a four-year course, leading to the degree of bachelor of laws. The work for the two courses was identical, but the shorter

course was given in the daytime and the four-year course in the evening, to suit the convenience of working students. The three-year course was discontinued in 1917 and the four-year course alone was offered. In 1930 the curriculum was as follows:

First Year

Elementary law, institutes of civil law, persons and family relations, Philippine government, assigned readings, criminal law, obligations, public speaking and oratory.

Second Year

Agency, sales, elementary procedure, property, torts and damages, administrative law, bailments and carriers, criminal procedure, mercantile law, partnership, assigned readings, general literary practice, practice in debating.

Third Year

Civil procedure, admiralty, wills, descent and administration, private and public corporations, bankruptcy and insolvency, constitutional law, evidence, insurance, taxation, mining and irrigation law, extraordinary legal remedies, assigned readings, justice of the peace practice, argument and decision of cases before supreme courts, drill in forensic oratory, drill in parliamentary law.

Fourth Year

Conveyancing, review of criminal procedure, legal medicine, public international law, trial practice, land registration and mortgages, legal ethics, practice court, review of civil law, mercantile law, remedial law, political law and crimes, private international law, legislative practice.

The course combined theoretical and practical instruction and gave adequate preparation for the practice of law in the Philippines. Before being allowed to practice the graduates must pass a government examination, in accordance with the law.

*Graduate
Course*

The college has been authorized to confer the degree of master of laws since 1917. The requirement for admission was the completion of the four-year law course, one-year residence, and the presentation of a thesis. The advanced courses toward this degree in 1930 were comparative law, evolution of modern civil law, jurisprudence, law reform, legal history, theory and practice of legislation, legal philosophy, international law, penology and criminology, statutory construction, public-service corporations and commissions, and advanced Philippine constitutional law.

Enrollment

The yearly attendance, as indicated by the following figures, has increased steadily: 1911, 154; 1912, 146; 1913, 142; 1914, 141; 1915, 212; 1916, 234; 1917, 251; 1918, 215; 1919, 239; 1920, 237; 1921, 206; 1922, 217; 1923, 201; 1924, 203; 1925, 232; 1926, 320; 1927, 421; 1928, 441.

Graduation

From 1913 to 1926, inclusive, 372 students received the degree of bachelor of laws, and 21 the degree of master of laws.

*Bar Exam-
ination Re-
sults*

The efficiency of the instruction in the college can be gauged by the results of the bar examination held yearly. The college had always led all other local schools in the number of successful candidates. In 1921, 100 per centum of its candidates passed, whereas only 91.8 per centum of the candidates of the Philippine Law School and 72.7 per centum of the candidates of the National Law College obtained passing grade.

*Monroe
Survey
Commission*

The Monroe Survey Commission expressed approval of the high standards maintained by

the college and admiration for its excellent administration. At the time of the survey the college was under the administration of Dean Jorge Bocobo.

THE SUMMER SCHOOL

The university, in response to the popular demand for courses during the summer vacation (April and May), offered in 1914 some courses in Manila under the control of the College of Liberal Arts. Beginning with 1920, the College of Education opened summer classes in Baguio, the summer capital of the Philippines. The board of regents in 1924 gave its approval to the establishment of a summer school as a department of the university, with its own director, associate directors, and secretary. The summer school holds classes during the summer in Manila, Cebú, Baguio, and Puerto Galera. The regular faculty of the different colleges serves in the school.

The attendance in past years was very encouraging. In 1925 the number of students enrolled in Manila was 958, 233 of whom were women; in Baguio, 173; in Cebú, 124; and in Puerto Galera, 20. In 1926 in Manila alone the enrollment was 1,860.

The summer school has been self-supporting, its income having been derived from the tuition fees paid by the students.

GRADUATE STUDY

Graduate study in the Colleges of Liberal Arts, Education, and Agriculture was placed in 1922 under the control of the university council, through a committee designated the

University Council Committee on Graduate Studies. This committee laid down the rules governing graduate study leading to the master of arts and master of science degrees.

Holders of bachelor's degrees were admitted. The candidate must take certain courses approved by the committee, prepare a thesis, take a general oral examination, and be in residence for at least one year.

Opportunities for graduate study in the Philippines are many. The laboratories of the Colleges of Liberal Arts and Agriculture, the Bureau of Science in Manila, the Philippine Library, and the libraries of the religious orders in Manila offer splendid facilities for research work.

THE SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS

Establishment

The School of Fine Arts, under the university, was opened in 1909. It was housed in a rented building on R. Hidalgo Street, in the Quiapo district of Manila. In 1928 it moved to another house, leased by the university, on California Street.

Instruction

The school offered courses in illustrating, cartooning, commercial designing, painting, sculpture, and engraving. In 1926 the curriculum was reorganized. One year of preparatory work was required of all students. A three-year curriculum in illustrating, cartooning, and commercial designing was organized. This consisted of courses in drawing from antique statuary, drapery, and still life; elementary decorative painting, perspective, history of art, and drawing from living models for the .

first year; drawing from life, advanced landscape painting, cartooning, and anatomy for the second year; and coloring from life, sketching from unposed subjects, etching, and composition for the third year.

The course in painting was four years long, as follows:

First Year

Drawing from antique statuary, drapery, and still life, elementary decorative painting, perspective, history of art.

Second Year

Drawing from life, coloring from life, anatomy, advanced landscape painting, elementary decorative painting.

Third Year

Coloring from life, outdoor sketching of living models, drawing from life, advanced landscape, decorative composition.

Fourth Year

Composition, portrait, drawing from life, advanced landscape, scenographic and mural decorating.

The course in sculpture was as follows:

First Year

Drawing from antique statuary, perspective, history of art, elementary modeling of ornaments, elementary relief modeling of figures.

Second Year

Anatomy, ornamental composition, modeling from statuary, drawing from life.

Third Year

Modeling from life, drawing from life, molding.

Fourth Year

Composition, modeling from life, drawing from life.

Lastly, there was a course in engraving, as follows:

First Year

Drawing from antique statuary, perspective, history of art, wax modeling of ornaments in bas-relief.

Second Year

Anatomy, wax modeling in relief of ornamental composition, wax modeling of copies in bas-relief, drawing from life.

Third Year

Modeling from life in bas-relief, composition in bas-relief, bronze engraving in bas-relief, drawing from life, practice in machinery.

Fourth Year

Modeling from life, composition in bronze in bas-relief, drawing from life, practice in machinery.

Fees

Until 1924 students paid no tuition fees. Then, however, the increasing cost of maintenance, owing to the large attendance, compelled the board of regents to charge each student a fee of 10 pesos a semester. The schedule of fees was later revised. In 1930 the school charged a tuition fee of 6 pesos for every elementary course, 15 pesos for an advanced course, an entrance fee of 5 pesos, a library fee of 5 pesos, 2 pesos as a medical fee, 3 pesos athletic fee, and 2 pesos for the *Philippine Collegian*, the student paper.

Prizes

At the end of every school year an exhibition of the more meritorious works of the students during the year was held in the school building. A committee of judges selected the best works and awarded prizes. Those that were awarded prizes were retained by the university.

Enrollment

The school had a large enrollment previous to 1924. In 1923 1,179 students were enrolled, but in 1924 the enrollment was only 269. The fall in attendance can be attributed to the tuition fee charged, beginning with the year 1924.

Graduation

The school has graduated a relatively small number of students, for the reason that few of

those enrolled remained long enough to finish a prescribed course. From 1914 to 1927 it graduated 17 students in engraving, 39 in painting, and 33 in sculpture.

CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC

The Conservatory of Music was established by an act of the Philippine Legislature in 1916, as a department of the university. Its purpose was to train men and women who wished to make a serious study of music and to become teachers, singers, composers, or performers on any musical instrument.

Establishment

At the beginning it offered a special course and a regular course. The special course was designed for students who wished to study music, without desiring to obtain a diploma. The regular course led to the teacher's diploma. The curriculum has been revised several times in the past few years.

Curriculum

In 1930 there was a preparatory course, which was required for admission to the regular course. It covered a period of four years of study. In the preparatory department the subjects taught were piano, violin and the other string instruments, wind instruments, chorus singing, choral singing, solo singing, ear training, solfeggio, rudiments of music, harmony, ensemble, sight reading, and transposition. Students must be at least twelve years old in order to be admitted to the preparatory course.

In the regular department the following subjects were taught: Theory of music, harmony, counterpoint, canon and fugue, forms and composition, analysis, knowledge of instruments

and instrumentation and history of music, style of music, æsthetics of music, method of theoretical instruction, pedagogy, solo singing, breathing, chorus singing, choral singing, choir training, operatic singing and acting, piano, pianoforte accompaniment, organ, violin and the other string instruments, wind instruments, percussion instruments, ensemble, orchestra playing, conducting and score reading, rudiments of music, solfeggio, aural training, sight reading, sight singing, transposition, music dictation, military music, dancing, folk dancing, stage dancing, English, German, French, Italian, and the art of teaching.¹

Examination The examination for graduation consisted of two parts; namely, practical examination in the principal subjects and theoretical examination in the prescribed subjects. Examinations were held in the presence of the whole faculty and the director, constituted as a board of examiners.

Enrollment A steady rise in enrollment from 1916 to 1925 has been recorded. The following figures indicate the annual attendance during the period: 1916, 138; 1917, 208; 1918, 187; 1919, 211; 1920, 357; 1921, 312; 1922, 379; 1923, 438; 1924, 433; 1925, 446.

Graduation The number of graduates from 1920 to 1927 was small. During this period, 1 student received a certificate in classical guitar; 29, in pianoforte; 1, pianoforte soloist; 6, in science and composition; 18, in voice culture; 4, in violin; and 1, in violoncello.

¹ See, for further details, *General Catalogue of the University of the Philippines, 1929-1930*, pp. 478-508.

The school has no building of its own. It occupies a rented house, entirely inadequate for use as a conservatory. The plan for a real conservatory building has already been drawn and construction will begin in 1932.

Housing

The policy of the administration to raise the academic standard of the school has led to the adoption of the ruling that, beginning with the year 1930, a candidate for graduation must have completed the high-school course. This would place the school on a level with the best of its kind abroad.

Raising the Standard

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CHAPTER XXII

PRIVATE EDUCATION, 1900-1930

One of the most significant features of the educational history of the Philippines in the last three decades was the development of private education. The important private schools which were founded during the Spanish era survived Spanish rule and continued to flourish. Although Spain was compelled to withdraw her political control over the Islands, the schools she had founded remained, to continue the cultural work begun by the mother country. To these old institutions were added many other educational centers founded by Filipino laymen, who were inspired by the principles of liberty and the separation of church and state introduced by the American government.

*Government
Control over
Private
Schools*

Rather early in the American régime the need of supervising the private schools was realized by the Department of Public Instruction. General Superintendent Fred. W. Atkinson, in his report to the Philippine Commission in 1902, recommended that the private schools be placed under the general superintendent of public instruction and the division superintendents. If properly regulated, these schools could become a positive help to the government in its educational work.

In 1907 several bills were presented in the Philippine Assembly on the compulsory supervision of private schools; but the Department

of Public Instruction did not favor the plan, alleging that the existing corporation law accomplished the same thing. Acting under section 168 of this law, the Department of Public Instruction authorized some private schools to issue diplomas and certificates, thus giving government approval to such schools. These schools were gradually required to use English as the language of instruction, and textbooks in English approved by the Department of Public Instruction.

The office of superintendent of private schools was created in 1910, for the purpose of exercising a better supervision of private educational institutions. The superintendent was under the Department of Public Instruction and carried out the policies of the department regarding private schools. The Philippine Legislature in 1917 authorized¹ the secretary of public instruction, who was the head of the department, to inspect and watch the private schools, in order to determine their efficiency.

Superintendent of Private Schools

Attached to the office of the superintendent of private schools were an assistant and three supervisors who were detailed to inspect the private schools and see that they followed the regulations concerning courses of study, transfer of students to other schools, the school calendar, and the like.

The division of private schools was reorganized in 1926 in accordance with the recommendations of the Monroe Commission. At

Commissioner of Private Education

¹ Act No. 2706.

the head of the division was appointed a general supervisor with the title of commissioner of private education. Four assistants and seven supervisors were attached to his office. The Islands were divided into six supervisory divisions; namely, Northern Luzon, Central Luzon, Manila, Southern Luzon, Eastern Bisayas, and Mindanao. In each division one supervisor was stationed, except in Manila, Eastern Bisayas, and Mindanao, and to each district two supervisors were assigned.

This office exercised strict supervision over private schools. It had the power to withdraw any school from the government's accredited list.

*Policy of
the Govern-
ment*

The government has encouraged the establishment of good private schools, in order to accommodate the large number of pupils who cannot be admitted to the public schools for lack of space. In as much as the school population has shown a tendency to increase from year to year, the private schools can always count on a good enrollment. These private schools are supported by student fees and subscriptions and, therefore, a large enrollment is of material importance to them.

The government grants these institutions a certain amount of freedom. It permits them to use textbooks other than those prescribed for the public schools, provided the subject matter is the same. They may teach religion and other subjects not in the official curricula. They may observe holidays not included in the public-school calendar, on condition that they

fulfill the requirement of the government in regard to the total number of school days.

The private schools follow the courses of study prescribed for the public schools. In equipment and facilities for instruction, they are required to follow the example of the government schools. English is now the language of instruction, from the primary to the collegiate grades. Military drill, athletics, and industrial instruction, three outstanding characteristics of public education, are also required of all private schools. Thus, private and public schools now conform to a common standard.

*Character
of Private
Education*

Tables 8 and 9 indicate the growth of accredited private schools:¹

*Growth of
Private
Schools*

TABLE 8.

Number of Accredited Private Secondary Schools.

Year.	For boys.	For girls.	Coeduca- tional.	Total.
1913....	9	13	8	30
1918....	10	17	23	50
1919....	10	17	33	60
1920....	10	19	37	66
1921....	11	20	41	72
1922....	12	22	50	84
1923....	15	34	72	121
1924....	18	38	86	142

The enrollment in the accredited secondary schools, both sectarian and nonsectarian, is shown in Table 9.

¹ *A Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands, 1925*, pp. 505, 506.

TABLE 9.
Enrollment in Private Secondary Schools.

Year.	Catholic.	Protestant.	Non-sectarian.	Total.
1913..	2,029	59	497	2,485
1918..	3,015	353	1,491	1,879
1919..	3,052	489	2,427	5,968
1920..	3,146	620	5,360	9,126
1921..	3,278	807	6,568	10,653
1922..	3,425	1,027	9,038	13,490
1923..	3,573	2,008	11,210	16,791
1924..	3,646	2,530	13,230	19,406

The number of private elementary schools, 1925 to 1928, classified according to religious denominations, is shown in Table 10.¹

TABLE 10.
Number of Private Elementary Schools.

Year.	Grade.	Catholic.	Protestant.	Nonsectarian.	Total.
1925..	Primary	200	14	36	250
	Intermediate	120	17	49	186
1926..	Primary	200	12	23	235
	Intermediate	135	13	48	196
1927..	Primary	178	6	25	209
	Intermediate	124	10	50	184
1928..	Primary	164	2	21	187
	Intermediate	110	3	41	154

¹ *Reports of the Governor General to the Secretary of War, 1926, 1928.*

The enrollment in the primary and intermediate courses in the approved private schools is indicated in Table 11.

TABLE 11.
Enrollment in the Private Elementary Schools.

Year.	Grade.	Catholic.	Protes- tant.	Nonsec- tarian.	Total.
1925..	Primary	33,796	1,243	3,460	38,499
	Inter- mediate	8,387	1,102	4,218	13,707
1926..	Primary	33,354	859	2,695	36,908
	Inter- mediate	9,747	994	4,834	15,575
1927..	Primary	30,635	378	2,937	33,950
	Inter- mediate	9,484	570	4,123	14,177
1928..	Primary	27,617	110	2,558	30,285
	Inter- mediate	9,509	185	3,102	12,796

In 1930 there were thirty-seven accredited private schools offering collegiate and technical courses. The number of students enrolled in these courses is indicated in Table 12.¹ These figures show the importance of private schools in the educational system of the Philippine Islands. The thousands of boys and girls who are being educated in these institutions justify the interest the government is taking in regulating and supervising them.

¹ Commissioner of Private Education; *Memorandum No. 15*, s. 1930.

TABLE 12.
Enrollment in Private Colleges and Professional Schools.

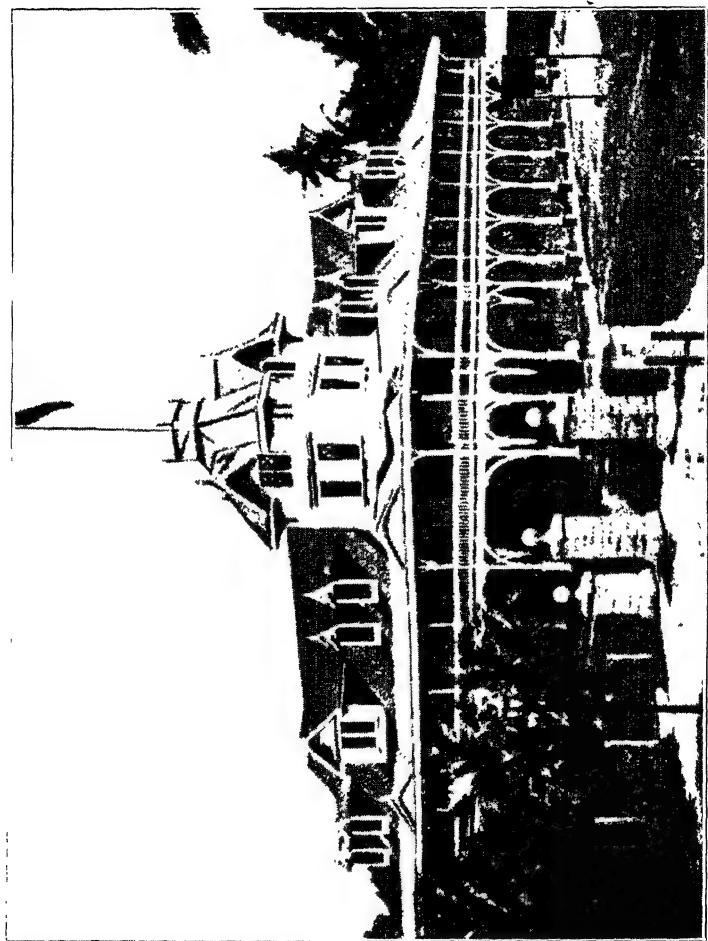
COURSE.	1928	1929	1930
Collegiate cultural courses	3,987	2,771	2,941
Architecture	68	102	163
B. S. in home economics...	11	37
Commerce	927	1,226	1,647
Dentistry	929	1,193	1,182
Education	1,609	2,506	2,667
Engineering	655	860	1,193
Law	1,087	1,265	1,503
Medicine	896	974	968
Music (bachelor in music) .	18	19	27
Nursing	441	486	489
Pharmacy	837	870	867
Post-graduate	33	16	63
Two-year normal college course	234
TOTAL	11,487	12,299	13,981

education

One of the notable influences exerted by the Americans on our schools lies in the system of coeducation. Not only the public schools, but also some of the private schools, have adopted the system. All private universities, even the old University of Santo Tomás, are coeducational.

*Classifica-
tion of
Private
Schools*

In the Philippines private schools are generally classified into sectarian and nonsectarian. The principal sectarian schools are managed by Catholics and Protestants. The Filipino Mohammedan priests in Mindanao and Sulu conduct schools in which the Koran is taught. The nonsectarian schools are those administered by laymen and are not identified with any particular religion or church. Among the more important Catholic schools may be mentioned the



SILLIMAN INSTITUTE, THE LEADING PROTESTANT SCHOOL IN THE PHILIPPINES

University of Santo Tomás, Ateneo de Manila, De La Salle College, Colegio de San Juan de Letran, San Beda College, St. Theresa's College, Assumption Convent, Holy Ghost College, St. Scholastica's College, Colegio de la Concordia, and Colegio de Santa Isabel. The University of Santo Tomás has become coeducational in some departments, such as education, high school, philosophy, and pharmacy, since 1924. The Ateneo, De La Salle, San Beda, and San Juan de Letran are boys' schools. The rest are girls' schools, conducted by nuns.

The best-known Protestant institutions are Silliman Institute, located in the town of Dumaguete, Province of Oriental Negros, and the Union Theological Seminary and the Union High School, which are in Manila.

Of the nonsectarian educational centers, the following may be mentioned: University of Manila, National University, National Teachers' College, José Rizal College, Far Eastern College, Liceo de Manila, Mapua Institute of Technology, Mabini Academy, The Pagsanhan Academy, Centro Escolar de Señoritas, Instituto de Mujeres, and the Philippine Women's College. The last three are girls' schools and the others are coeducational. All these institutions were founded by Filipinos.¹

The private schools are widely distributed throughout the Islands, from Ilocos Norte in the north of Luzon down to Zamboanga in the south. In practically every province there are

*Distribution
of Private
Schools*

¹ See *Lists of Private-School Courses Operating under Government Approval, 1929-1930*, issued by the Office of the Commissioner of Private Education, Manila.

*The
Catholic
Schools*

private schools offering courses ranging from the first grade of the primary course to the second year of the collegiate course. Iloilo, in 1930, had 22 private schools, established in the different towns of the province; Tayabas had 19; Rizal, 18; Ilocos Sur, 17; La Union, 15; Bulacan 15; Batangas, 13; and Pampanga, 11.

The Catholic schools founded during the Spanish régime resumed their work as soon as peace was restored. They gradually adjusted themselves to the new situation, abandoning Spanish as the language of instruction and adopting English instead. As they sought government recognition, they were compelled to follow the official courses of study, equip modern laboratories for the teaching of the natural sciences, and provide student libraries. More and more laymen were engaged to teach in these schools. American Jesuits began coming and in 1921 they took over the management of the Ateneo de Manila, which was founded by the Spanish Jesuits.

During the period from 1900 to 1930 new Catholic schools were opened, both in Manila and in the provinces, such as the Holy Ghost College, St. Paul's Institution, and St. Theresa's College which are girls' schools established in Manila, and the Malabon Normal School in Malabon, Rizal.

The Catholic schools are well housed. They occupy substantial buildings, and recently have built modern concrete structures as, for instance, those of the University of Santo Tomás, De La Salle College, San Beda College, Holy Ghost College, St. Theresa's College, and St.

Scholastica's College, all located in Manila.

With the establishment of American rule in the Philippines, Protestant missionaries were permitted to come. They organized mission schools, the most important of which is Silliman Institute. It was founded by Horace B. Silliman, LL.D., of Cohoes, New York. It is supported by the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. The buildings of the institute are grouped together on forty acres of land outside the town of Dumaguete, forming a tiny college town. There are dormitories for students, faculty residences, a hospital, a library, an industrial building, dining halls, and classroom and laboratory buildings.

*The
Protestant
Schools*

The courses of instruction offered are elementary, high school, and the first two years of the collegiate course, which are identical with those in the public schools, except that the Bible is here an important subject of study.

In Manila the Protestants maintain the Union High School for boys and girls, and the Union Theological Seminary for the training of Protestant ministers.

The nonsectarian schools under Filipino control have multiplied since the establishment of the present régime. They may be placed under two categories; namely, schools exclusively for girls and schools for both boys and girls.

*The Non-
sectarian
Schools*

SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

One of the schools for girls is the Instituto de Mujeres, which was founded in 1900 by Manuel Roxas y Manio, a Filipino clergyman,

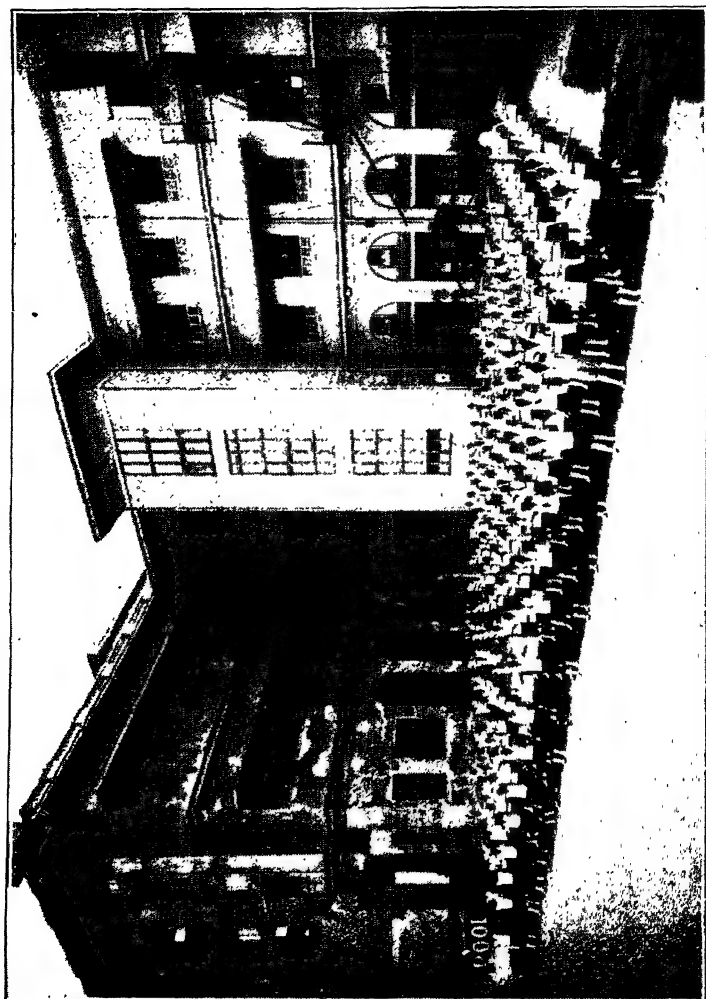
*Instituto
de Mujeres*

Rosa L. Sevilla, a graduate of the Normal School for Women, and Susana Revilla. The school offers the elementary, secondary, and commercial courses approved by the Department of Public Instruction. In addition to the prescribed subjects of these curricula, the school gives instruction in vocal and instrumental music, painting, drawing, and embroidery. The school has occupied, since 1930, a modern building with enough space for dormitories. It admits boarders as well as non-resident students. The boarders, in 1918, paid 60 pesos quarterly for board, an entrance fee of 8 pesos, 20 pesos as deposit, matriculation fees according to the grade, and examination and diploma fees. Since 1918 the fees have been raised. Girls four years of age are admitted. Boarders, since the beginning, have been required to wear a uniform, the younger girls a blue uniform cut in the European style, and the older girls, the Filipino dress of the same color.

*Centro
Escolar
de Señoritas*

The Centro Escolar de Señoritas was established in 1907 by a group of Filipinos headed by Librada Avelino, a graduate teacher. Until 1912 the school occupied rented buildings in Manila. In the following years the school progressed materially and was able to build its own permanent quarters. It has enjoyed considerable popularity, as shown by its large enrollment. Its students come from all parts of the Islands.

The courses of study follow those of the government, with the addition of optional subjects of study, such as piano, violin, singing,



PHILIPPINE WOMEN'S COLLEGE: A CLASS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

painting, embroidery, and the like. Recently the school has organized professional courses; namely, pharmacy, law, and medicine.

The school has boarding and day students. The boarding students are required to bring their own bedding, a small table, a chair, a small wardrobe, toilet articles, a certain quantity of clothing, and shoes. The uniforms are pink, Filipino style for the older girls and European style for the younger ones. The school has strict rules of discipline. Boarders are permitted to receive callers on Sundays and other holidays, and are not allowed to leave the premises except when accompanied by their parents or guardians. Such house rules are common to these boarding schools for girls.

The Philippine Women's College was founded in 1919 by a group of Filipino women headed by Francisca Tirona de Benitez and is the latest addition to the list of boarding schools for girls. It occupies a newly constructed building of wood and cement located on Taft Avenue, one of the main thoroughfares of the City of Manila. Its courses of instruction are modelled after those of the government schools. It has kindergarten, elementary, secondary, and collegiate departments. In its collegiate department there are courses in pharmacy, business administration, and liberal arts.

*Philippine
Women's
College*

COEDUCATIONAL SCHOOLS

One of the first private schools established by Filipinos under the American régime was the Liceo de Manila, a primary and secondary school that was founded by Enrique Mendiola

*Liceo
de
Manila*

and Ignacio Villamor, both well-known educators, in 1900. In 1904, on the initiative of Doctor Alejandro Albert, a school of pharmacy was organized as a department of the institution and was designated the Escuela de Farmacia del Liceo de Manila. To this department women were admitted, and the first women pharmacists in the Philippines graduated from this school. Later, in 1915, the name of the pharmacy school was changed to Manila College of Pharmacy.

*Far
Eastern
College*

To the group of nonsectarian coeducational schools belongs the Far Eastern College, which was founded in 1919 by N. Maronilla Seva, a Filipino graduate of the state university. The school maintains day and night departments, offering the complete high-school course as prescribed by the government. The night classes are intended for self-supporting students. The school occupies rented buildings in Quiapo, one of the populous districts of Manila. The enrollment in the past years has been encouraging.

*José Rizal
College*

The José Rizal College was established by another Filipino, Vicente Fabella, a graduate of an American university. In addition to the high-school course, the college¹ offers a course in commerce. It also has day and evening classes. The college is established in Manila.

*National
Teachers
College*

The National Teachers College was founded in 1929 by a group of Filipino teachers. Besides the high-school courses it offers a four-

¹ College means in the Philippines a school or academy, as in Latin Europe. It does not necessarily denote the academic rank of the institution.

year course in education, leading to the degree of bachelor of science in education; a commercial courses; a home-economics course; and a preparatory law course, all of which have received the approval of the Department of Public Instruction. The college is established in Manila. Its tuition fees are 18 pesos for boys and 10 pesos for girls. It is the practice of private coeducational schools to charge lower tuition fees for girls.

THE PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

Two nonsectarian universities have been established under the American régime, namely, the University of Manila, and the National University.

The University of Manila was founded by a Filipino, Apolinario G. de los Santos, in 1914. The first departments to be organized were the primary, intermediate, and high school. The original name of this institution was Instituto de Manila. Then a college of liberal arts was opened in 1920. In the following year a local law school was incorporated with it. At the end of 1921 it adopted the name University of Manila. Since then other departments have been organized; namely, the colleges of business administration, education, and philosophy and literature. The buildings of this institution are located in Sampaloc, a district of Manila. In 1925 the university owned a library consisting of 1,318 volumes.

*University
of Manila*

The National University had as its nucleus the Colegio Filipino, which was founded by Mariano F. Jhocson in Manila soon after the estab-

*National
University*

lishment of civil government in the Philippines. It was an elementary and secondary school. After a few years of existence it was converted into a school of commerce and was named Colegio Mercantil. Two years later the elementary and secondary courses were offered again. The language of instruction was Spanish until 1913, when the school definitely adopted English. The name of the school was changed, for the third time, to National Academy in 1916. It incorporated the Philippine Law School which was founded by Mariano F. Jhocson and the Lacson brothers in 1915. A college of liberal arts was organized in 1917. The name National Academy was changed to National University in 1921. More departments were subsequently organized. The colleges of education and commerce and business administration were established simultaneously in 1921. By 1925 the colleges of pharmacy, dentistry, and engineering had all been organized. The courses of study were patterned after those in the state university.

The buildings of the university are located in Sampaloc, a district of Manila, and in the Walled City, Manila. The university has a board of trustees, headed by the Jhocson family. In 1925 its enrollment was 1,574 and its library consisted of 3,255 volumes.¹ The university holds classes day and evening.

The University of Santo Tomás, whose history during the Spanish era has already been traced, is one of our private universities and

*University
of
Sto. Tomás,
1900-1930*

¹ *A Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands*, 1925, p. 509.

the only Catholic institution of higher learning in the Islands. By modernizing its equipment and curricula it has kept pace with the educational progress of the country. It is by far the best housed of the private universities. In 1927 it left its historic building in the Walled City to occupy a spacious, modern structure in Sampaloc, which cost two million pesos. The building is erected on extensive grounds with plenty of vacant space for future expansion.

The departments of the university that have been organized since American occupation are the School of Dentistry, established in 1904; the College of Civil Engineering and Architecture, inaugurated in 1907; the College of Liberal Arts, opened in 1923; and the College of Education, organized in 1926. The university still has the faculties of sacred theology, civil law, canon law, philosophy and letters, medicine and surgery, and pharmacy.

The university has remained under the control of the Spanish Dominicans. The deans of the different faculties and colleges are of the Dominican Order, except two who are laymen; but the majority of the members of the teaching personnel are Filipino laymen. There are also several women teachers in some faculties.

There is little difference between the courses of study followed in this institution and those prescribed in the state university. Religion is a required subject of study in all the curricula.

An innovation in the university which has received popular approval was the admission of women students, in 1924. Table 13 shows the number of women enrolled from 1924 to 1931:

TABLE 13.

Number of Women Students, University of Santo Tomás.

Department.	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Total.
Pharmacy ..	25	50	122	177	220	223	182	159	1,158
Education	39	79	208	330	391	461	1,508
Philosophy	1	4	13	20	56	76	170
High School.	21	40	62	76	199
Grand total									3,035

The number of women who have received academic degrees from the university is indicated in Table 14.

TABLE 14.

Number of Women Graduates, University of Santo Tomás.

DEGREE.	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Total.
Licentiate in pharmacy	13	31	50	53	61	208
Doctor of pharmacy	1	5	6
B.S.E., education	50	41	91
M.A., education	14	6	4	3	7	34
Ph.B.	2	4	6
Grand total						345

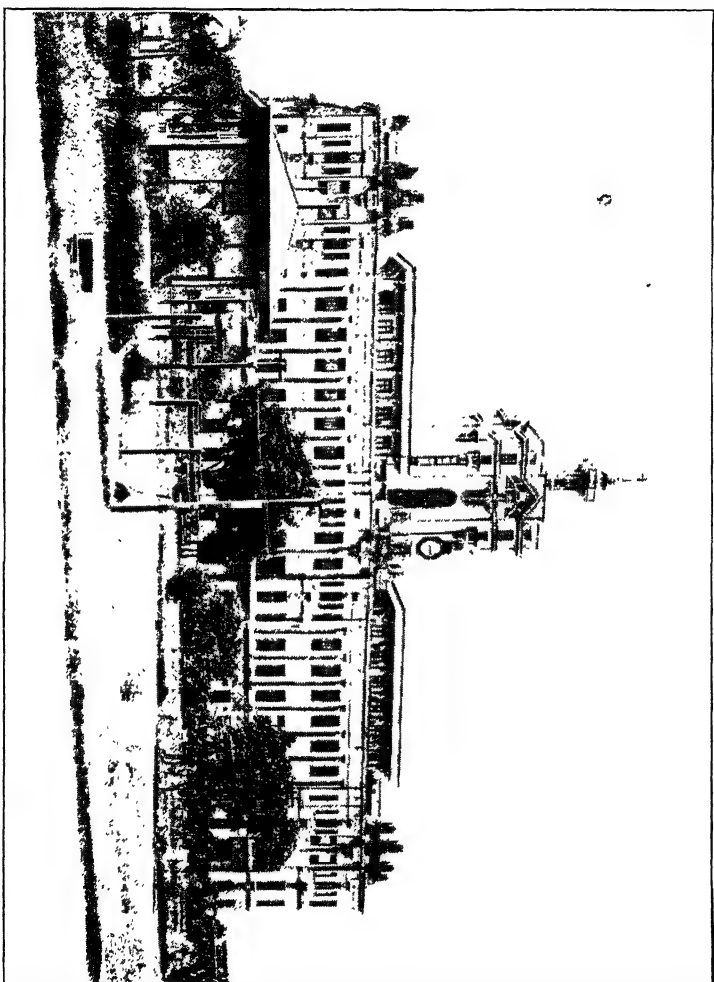
The total number of students enrolled in the university from 1898 to 1910 was 4,369; 1910 to 1920, 7,110; 1920-1923, 1,143; and 1923-1928, 6,331. In 1927 alone there were 2,000 students in the university.

The university conferred a total of 641 degrees from 1898 to 1911; 783, 1911 to 1922; 548, 1922 to 1928.¹

Conclusion

It seems fitting to close this short history of education in the Philippines with the above

¹ All these figures are taken from Juan Sanchez Garcia, O.P.; *Historical Documentary Synopsis of the University of Santo Tomás*, 1929, pp. 174, 175.



THE NEW BUILDING OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SANTO TOMAS

brief account of the oldest institution of learning in the country for the last three decades. This Catholic university has trained our leaders in the past and is training many of those for the future. With its splendid record and its resources it can, if it chooses, remain a vital force in our educational development. Its recent history clearly shows how vast are the opportunities open to private schools in the Philippines.

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APPENDIX A

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES ON SOME FILIPINO TEACHERS DURING THE SPANISH RÉGIME

ABAD, MAXIMO.—Born in Imus Cavite, 1870. Graduated from the Normal School in 1892. Appointed as teacher in the boys' primary school in Boac, Marinduque. Joined the revolutionary forces and fought against the Americans.

By JOSEFA ROQUE.

ADIARTE, ANGELA DELGADO.—Born in October, 1845, Ilocos Norte. Studied in La Concordia College, a school for girls in Manila, for four years. Was given charge of the girls' municipal school in her home town. Began with a monthly salary of 8 pesos, which, after several years, was raised to 15 pesos. Married Pancracio Adiarde, a teacher. The couple opened a private school of their own, but their work was interrupted by the revolution and the deportation of Mr. Adiarde to Guam.

By EUSEBIA PABLO.

ADIARTE, PANCRACIO M.—Born in Laoag, Ilocos Norte *c.* May, 1854. Studied in the town school and later in the University of Santo Tomás. Qualified as teacher of secondary instruction. Established in

¹These notes were compiled by former students of the author. They are here presented in the hope that they may stimulate others to collect similar data on Filipino teachers.

Laoag a private school of secondary rank which was recognized by the University of Santo Tomás. It existed until 1898. He was a well-known educator.

By P. S. MARIANO and
BERNARDO ROMERO.

ALINDADA, RAYMUNDO.—Born in Bagabag, Nueva Vizcaya. Studied in San Juan de Letran College and the University of Santo Tomás. Obtained the degrees of bachelor of arts and bachelor of laws. Founded a private school in Manila, giving the first two years of secondary instruction. The professors in his school were Apolinario Mabini, Eusebio Orense, and Cayo Alzona. Held the position of civil governor of Isabela Province, and director of the first census.

By FEDERICO TUASON.

ALVEAR, JUAN.—Born, June 21, 1864, in San Fabian, Pangasinan. Graduated from San Juan de Letran College with B. A. degree. Taught in the school of Enrique Mendiola in Manila. Went to Lingayen and opened a private school. In 1902 he founded Rizal College in San Fabian, Pangasinan. One of the professors in the college was the noted Fray Salvador Pons. Was requested by the Malolos government during the revolution to open a school in Manaoag, then a flourishing town in Pangasinan. It was closed soon after on account of the Filipino-American War. Represented the third district of Pangasinan in the Philippine Assembly of 1907.

Voted in favor of the bill establishing the the University of the Philippines and the Philippine General Hospital. Served as governor of Pangasinan. Died, December, 1917.

By FELICIANO S. ENRIQUE.

ARELLANO, CAYETANO.—Born in Orion, Bataan, March 2, 1847. Educated in the College of San Juan de Letran and the University of Santo Tomás. A distinguished scholar and jurist, he held the chair of law in the University of Santo Tomás. Honored by Yale University with the LL.D. degree, the first Filipino to receive such a distinction. Deceased.

By MATILDE Z. RIVERA.

AVELINO, BRAULIO (1858-1919).—Graduated from the Normal School in 1888. Taught in Cuartero, Capiz, from 1891 to 1893, and in Pontevedra, Capiz, from 1893 to 1899. Died in 1919.

By JOSE BARROQUILLO.

AVELINO, SIMPLICIO.—Graduate of the Normal School. Taught in the municipal school for boys in Tanawan, Batangas. Exempted from taxation and a member of the *principalia* class. Well known as a disciplinarian. Received as salary 25 pesos a month which was then regarded as high. Taught for twenty-five years. Was decorated by the Spanish government.

By MARIA PAZ ANGELES-GARCIA.

BALTAZAR, PETRONILA GUEVARA.—Born in Manila, May 28, 1848, of Spanish-Chinese parents. Studied in Santa Rosa

College. Married Narciso Baltazar, a descendant of the Tagalog writer Francisco Baltazar. Lived in Baliwag and established a private school in her own home there. Continued teaching under the American régime and was retired after twenty years of service.

By P. M. LIMCHANGCO.

BERNARDO, CAYETANO (1847-1925).—Born in Guiguinto, Bulacan. He belonged to the *principalia* class of the town, his father being *Teniente Mayor*. Attended the parochial school and later San Juan de Letran College in Manila. Enrolled in the University of Santo Tomás as a student of theology. Returned to his native town in 1875 and taught in the public school until 1885. Liberal in his use of the rod and *palmeta* in the school. Became *Teniente Mayor* in 1886 and later, *Capitán*. Henceforth, he was addressed as *Capitán Tanó*. Died, 1925.

By ISABELO B. GATCHALIAN.

CALLAO, MARIANO.—Born in San Jacinto, Pangasinan, c. 1855. His father belonged to the *principalia* class. Studied in the parochial school of Lingayen. In 1870 entered San Juan de Letran College, Manila. Obtained B.A. degree with honors, receiving gold medals for excellence in Spanish and Latin grammar. Entered the University of Santo Tomás and graduated with a degree in philosophy and letters. Won many gold medals for his scholarship. Founded in Lingayen the Cole-

gio de Lingayen. The enrollment was large. Domingo Manday and Father Roman Estrada were teachers in his school. By 1894 the school had turned out about 300 students who went to Vigan and Manila to continue their studies. Died in 1894.

By SIMEON LOPEZ.

CANDO, IGNACIA.—Born in October, 1870, San Antonio, Nueva Ecija. Educated in the College of Santa Rosa, a school for girls in Manila. In 1889 she returned to her home town and taught in the parish school there.

By MILAGROS MUSNGI.

CARLOS, MANUEL.—Born in Baliwag, Bulacan, on January 4, 1867. Studied in the town school and then in the Ateneo Municipal in Manila, obtaining the B. A. degree in 1888. Enrolled in the University of Santo Tomás where he excelled in drawing. Opened a school for boys, teaching drawing, reading, writing, Latin and Spanish grammar. Died in 1920.

By DOMINGO SANTIAGO.

CATINDIG, EUGENIO.—Born in San Nicolas, Bulacan, 1873. Studied in San Juan de Letran College and then in the Normal School. Taught in the public school in 1882. Served as teacher under the American régime until 1906. Commonly known as "Maestrong Eugenio."

By ISABELO B. GATCHALIAN.

CORDERO, TOMÁS.—Studied in the school of Enrique Mendiola in Manila where he later

became a student teacher. Finished the secondary course in 1890. Founded a private school in Candaba, Pampanga, which attracted students from neighboring towns. In 1901 he came to Manila and established another private school in Trozo called Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario. He had to give up teaching two years later on account of illness.

By MARIA CARMEN O. LAPUS.

CUSTODIO, ALEJO (1860-1920).—Born in Pasig, Rizal. A graduate of the Normal School, he was appointed to the municipal school in Pasig. Received 18 pesos per month as salary. In 1896 the school was closed. From 1900 to his death he taught privately.

By REMEDIOS ALFONSO.

DACANAY, MARIANO.—Born in Bacnotan, La Union, in 1863. Educated in the parochial school of San Fernando, La Union, and the Seminary of Vigan. Ordained as priest, he was appointed a professor in the seminary. During the Revolution, he was persecuted and imprisoned. Translated into Ilocano the prayer book entitled *Ancora de Salvación, Historia Sagrada*, and many *novenas*. A contributor to *La Biblioteca Ilocana*, an Ilocano monthly magazine. Through his literary works, Father Dacanay exerted a lasting educational influence among the Ilocanos.

By ROSARIO F. LAZO.

ESPIRITU, MARIANO (1856-1921).—Born in Paoay, Ilocos Norte, of wealthy parents.

Educated in the Seminary of Vigan. Winner of many scholastic honors. Completed the studies for the priesthood at the age of 21. Taught in the seminary until he reached the age of 23 when he was ordained priest. Served in Bacarra, Ilocos Norte, Bawang, La Union, and in Badoc, Ilocos Norte, where he opened a school. He had at one time 120 students. The complete primary course and the first two years of the secondary course were given in his school. Besides teaching academic subjects, he encouraged the students to play *sipa*¹ and other games for their physical well-being. He was reputed to be a strict disciplinarian, using the rod whenever he saw fit.

By VICENTA E. BENÉMERITO.

FESTIN, EUGENIO.—Born, November, 1859, Banton (now Jones) Romblon. Studied in the public school of the town. Served as clerk of the parish priest and later went to Manila to study in the Normal School. In 1862 he was appointed teacher in the boys' school in Odiongan, Romblon. At the same time he held the positions of *directorcillo del gobernadorcillo*, clerk of the lieutenant of the *Guardia Civil* and of the parish priest, and later, *Cabeza de barangay*. Elected gobernadorcillo in 1891, he resigned as teacher. Resumed teaching in 1894 until 1898.

By MANUEL S. ROJO.

¹ A Filipino game played with a ball made of rattan.

GELLA, VICENTE.—Graduated from the University of Santo Tomás with the degree of licentiate in jurisprudence. In 1886, authorized by the University of Santo Tomás to open a private school in San José, Antique. It was known as Colegio de San José.

By A. M. ENCARNACION.

GOMEZ QUIJANO, FERMINA (1856-).—

Born in Tondo, Manila. Studied in the Escuela Municipal de Manila where she obtained the teacher's certificate. She was appointed to teach in one of the public schools established in the district of Sta. Cruz, Manila. Later, she opened a private school named Escuela Católica de Lourdes in Dulong Bayan, now called Rizal Avenue, Manila. "Maestra Fermina", as she is known, has taught many of the daughters of prominent Manila families. Still living (1931) and teaching.

By ESTEFANIA A. MANIKIS.

JAMIAS, VALENTIN.—Born on November 1st, 1849, in Sarrat, Ilocos Norte. His parents belonged to the *principalia* class of the town. Studied under the parish priest of the town. Sent to Manila to study for the priesthood. Entered San Juan de Letran College. Later, was pensioned by his native town to study in the Normal School. Graduated as teacher in 1875. Took charge of the municipal school of Dingras, Ilocos Norte, and afterwards of Sarrat. He had conflicts with the parish priest because of his zeal in teaching the Span-

ish grammar. In 1905 he was made teacher in the Laoag parochial school, remaining there until 1908. Translator of devotional books and author of several original works in the Ilocano language.

By EDUARDO O. EDRALIN.

MACEDA, GREGORIO.—Born in Pagsanhan, Laguna, November 17, 1859. Studied under Graciano Tan in Pagsanhan and Juan Evangelista in Manila. Later he entered the Normal School and graduated as teacher. Appointed teacher in the municipal school in San Antonio, Laguna, at a salary of 12 pesos a month.

By WILFRIDO MACEDA.

MANAPAT, FILOMENO.—Born on August 11, 1859, in Navotas, Rizal. Began his studies in the town school. Entered the Normal School and graduated as teacher. He excelled in mathematics and spoke Spanish fluently. Taught in the municipal school of Caloocan. Died in 1918.

By JOVITA SANCHEZ.

MENDIOLA, ENRIQUE (1859-1911?).—Studied in one of the public schools in Manila and in the private school of Benedicto Luna. Obtained the degree of bachelor of arts at San Juan de Letran College. Studied philosophy at the University of Santo Tomás and received the certificate of teacher of secondary instruction. In 1884 he obtained the degree of licentiate in jurisprudence. Opened a private school of secondary rank in Manila during the Spanish era and the Burgos Institute

in Malolos, Bulacan, during the revolutionary period. Founder of the Liceo de Manila. Author of a book entitled *Principles of Morals and Civic Education*. One of the foremost Filipino educators.

By ALFONSO REYES.

MESINA, ZACARIAS.—Born in San Fernando, Pampanga, November, 1853. Attended the University of Santo Tomás. After graduation, he taught in the municipal school of San Fernando for two years, then in Cainta, Rizal, and finally in Marikina, Rizal. He taught for twenty-four years. He exerted a deep influence during his active life.

By DEMETRIO ANDRES.

ORQUIZA, JUAN.—Born, April, 1860, Iba, Zambales. Completed the primary course in the training department of the Normal School. In 1877 he completed the normal course. In 1881 was appointed teacher in the municipal school of San José, Nueva Ecija; transferred to Cabiao, Nueva Ecija, and later, to Iba, Zambales. Member of the masonic lodge "Sinukuan", of the "Liga Filipina," and of the "Katipunan."

By PEDRO PAGDANGANAN.

REYES, ROMAN GUZMAN.—Born in Bigaa, Bulacan, February 18, 1857. Studied in the Normal School in Manila in 1873. Graduated as teacher in 1876. Taught in the municipal school of Santa Maria, Bulacan, for sixteen years. Later, was trans-

ferred to Bigaa, Bulacan. Taught until 1898.

By TOMAS R. PAGUIA.

ROCHA, FERNANDO.—Born in Tagbilaran, Bohol, 1866. Graduate of the Normal School. Opened a private school where students from the neighboring islands studied. Fame as teacher was widespread. Popularly known as “Maestrong Andoy.” Elected governor of the province for two terms, 1908-1916. Deceased.

By ELPIDIO G. MUMAR and
CONCHITA ORTEGA.

RODRIGUEZ, PEDRO.—Born in Marikina, Rizal, 1861. Completed the primary course in his home town at the age of 15. Entered the Normal School in Manila and graduated as teacher. Taught for one year in the town of Dasmariñas, Cavite, then in Taytay, Rizal, and finally in Marikina.

By ANTONIO ISIDRO.

ROMULO, GREGORIO (1867-1921).—Educated at San Juan de Letran College where he received the bachelor of arts degree. Opened a private school, Colegio de San Gerónimo, in 1893. Later, he became the director of a private school, Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario, in Manila. Served as provincial governor of Tarlac.

By JOSE E. CASTAÑEDA.

SALINAS, HUGO ZARATE.—Born in Binmaley, Pangasinan, April 9, 1872. Studied under Leocadio Fernandez and Roman Estrada, teachers in Pangasinan. Appointed as a *pensionado*, (government

student) to the Normal School in Manila, graduating in 1893 with the title of "teacher of primary instruction" with the grade of excellent. Taught in the municipal school of Tuguegarao, Cagayan, from 1894-95, and then transferred to Dagupan, Pangasinan. Lastly he taught in Binmaley, Pangasinan, until 1903.

By SALVADOR S. SAJONAS.

SAN GABRIEL, BONIFACIO.—Born in Bigaa, Bulacan. Studied philosophy in the College of San Juan de Letran and pedagogy in the Normal School. Taught in Jaen, Nueva Ecija, for twenty years, from 1875.

By DOMINADOR K. LOPEZ.

SEVILLA, MARIANO.—Born in Bulacan, Bulacan, November, 1839. Studied in San Juan de Letran College. Obtained the degree of licentiate in philosophy in 1860. In 1864 he was made professor in the Royal College of San José. In 1866 he was conferred the degree of doctor of theology by the University of Santo Tomás. A defender of the rights of the Filipino clergy. Was banished to the Island of Marianas for five years as a result of the uprising of 1872. Upon his return he founded the College of the Holy Family (*Colegio de la Sagrada Familia*). Was professor of canonical law in the Literary University (*Universidad Literaria*) of the Philippine Republic. Founder of the newspaper *El Católico Filipino*, 1898, and a patron of the college for girls, Instituto de Mujeres.

Author of a Spanish-Tagalog grammar and various devotional works.

By ANGELES BERTOL.

TINSAY, RAMON.—Holder of A.B. degree from the University of Santo Tomás. Received the teacher's certificate from the Normal School. Began teaching in Silay, Occidental Negros, in 1877, receiving 12 pesos a month. In addition he taught privately fencing and bookkeeping and some subjects of secondary instruction. Resigned as teacher in 1880.

By EMILIO H. SEVERINO.

VILLARUZ, RUFINO.—Born on November 6, 1853, in Malabon, Rizal. Finished the primary course in his home town. Took the secondary course in San Juan de Letran College. Studied law in the University of Santo Tomás, but, due to some trouble with the friars, he was unable to finish the course. At the age of twenty-six, he opened a school of secondary instruction in San Isidro, Nueva Ecija, which was affiliated with the College of San Juan de Letran. Students from neighboring provinces were attracted to this school by the fame of Don Rufino as a teacher. Died, April 10, 1905.

By PACITA MANIAUL.

VILLAMOR, IGNACIO (1863-).—Obtained the bachelor of arts degree in San Juan de Letran College in 1885. In 1889 he founded a school called Colegio de San Antonio de Padua. Received licentiate in jurisprudence degree from the University

of Santo Tomás in 1893. As member of the Malolos Congress, he took active part in framing the educational policy of the Philippine Republic. Established a private secondary school in Manila and with the late Enrique Mendiola founded the Liceo de Manila where he served as professor and secretary until June, 1901. He has held important positions in the government, and now (1931) is a justice of the Supreme Court of the Philippine Islands.

By DOMINADOR Y. ALO.

YAMSON, JUAN (1855-1919).—Studied in the Ateneo Municipal and Normal School for Men where he obtained the title of *maestro superior* (superior teacher). After passing a government teachers' examination, he was appointed to take charge of the boy's public school in Sta. Cruz, Manila. Taught many Filipinos who became prominent in public life, such as the late Commissioner Benito Legarda, Representative Pedro Magsalin, and Doctor Eliodoro Mercado, discoverer of a medicine for the cure of leprosy.

By ESTEFANIA A. MANIKIS.

APPENDIX B

JOSÉ RIZAL'S PLAN OF A MODERN SCHOOL ¹

The purpose of this institution is to form and educate young men of good family and means in accordance with the demands of modern times and circumstances.

The following subjects will be taught:

Ethics—Study of Religions—Natural Law—Civil Law—Deportment—Hygiene.

Mathematics—Physics and Chemistry—Natural History—Geography—Political Economy.

Universal History—Philippine History—Logic, Rhetoric and Poetics (in Spanish).

Spanish—English—French—German—Chinese—Tagalog.

Gymnastics—Equitation—Fencing—Swimming—Music—Drawing—Dancing.

INTERIOR REGIME

The school will be under the charge of a director, a manager, a secretary, and the faculty.

The director will take charge of the entire régime in connection with the curriculum, school and recreation hours, selection of teachers, textbooks, etc.

The manager will keep account of all expenditures, have charge of the purchase of all supplies needed, and keep a book enabling him to render monthly accounts of the financial condition of the establishment.

The secretary will have charge of the correspondence of the school with the parents of

¹Published in *The Philippine Review*, December, 1916.

the students, reporting the progress made by these in their studies, and with other educational institutions in the Philippine Islands and abroad with which relations may be established.

The teachers will explain the subjects assigned to them and it will be their duty to give weekly a careful and exact account of the progress, application, and conduct of the students and to propose improvements or modification.

The director, the manager, and the secretary and, if possible, also the teachers, will live on the premises of the establishment.

Accuracy and punctuality will be strictly observed in all things and all resolutions and orders of the school will be enforced to the letter and minute.

No teacher shall be admitted without previous examination by a board of teachers appointed by the director, and after a secret ballot.

In case there are several candidates, the appointment will be made competitive.

The teachers will explain at least three of the studies included in the first group and will receive sixty duros per month during the first year and have their salaries increased ten duros each year until the maximum sum of 150 duros has been reached.

All will eat at a common table, with the director, manager, and secretary of the school.

No one shall under any consideration be allowed to resign from his position before the end of the school year, except in case of illness requiring a change of climate or residence.

The director as well as the manager, secretary, and teachers will be deemed stockholders of the establishment during their respective terms of office.

The director, in addition to the stock which he may purchase, will be entitled to the proceeds of ten shares of stock.

The manager and secretary, by reason of their office, will have eight shares, the teachers of the first four groups, five, and those of the fifth group, two.

The shares of stock issued for the purpose of establishing this school will be of the par value of 100 duros, and only 500 of them will be issued.

STUDENTS

The students will be boarding students and any nationality will be admitted.

Before any student is admitted, an investigation will be required and a person of the locality where the school is established must be presented as guarantor or person in charge of the student.

Boys under the age of seven years or young men over the age of twenty will not be admitted.

There will be two divisions; that of the older and that of the younger students, the former not to exceed forty and the latter not to exceed sixty in number.

In case the total number of students in the two divisions does not reach forty, they will be combined into one.

A watcher will be constantly with the division during their studies, recreations, and meals, as well as on excursions, and walks during their hours of rest.

The fee for boarding students will be 200 duros per annum; it includes the studies of the first group and gymnastics and swimming, which are obligatory. For the other studies additional tuition fee will be charged.

The fee is payable in three equal instalments upon the entrance of the student, in the middle and at the end of the school term.

School begins on July 1st and ends on March 21st each year.

Students desiring to spend their vacations at the school will pay only fifteen duros a month.

The tuition fee includes laundry, medicine, (in case of illness not of a serious or contagious nature), and the expenses for paper, ink, and pens.

Books and copybooks are paid for separately.

The students will have a dress uniform, a class suit, and house and recreation suits.

The equipment will consist of 12 shirts, 12 pairs of white drawers, 4 suits of woolen underwear, 6 rayadillo blouses, 6 dark trousers, 24 handkerchiefs, 24 pairs of socks, one leather belt, 2 pairs of shoes, and one pair of patent leather shoes.

DAILY PROGRAM

The students rise at half past five and dress until six o'clock.

6 to 6.15 Swedish gymnastics (purely hygienic).

6.15	to	6.30	Light breakfast.
6.30	to	8	Study.
8	to	10	Classes. On Sunday, religious exercises.
10	to	10.30	Light lunch.
10.30	to	11	Recreation, equitation, swimming, fencing, on alternate days and combined.
11	to	12	Study.
12	to	12.45	Luncheon.
12.45	to	1.45	Recreation, music, and drawing.
1.45	to	3	Study.
3	to	5	Classes.—(On holidays a walk till 6.15).
5	to	5.15	Tea.
5.15	to	5.45	Gymnastics and sports.
5.45	to	6.45	Recreation.
6.15	to	8	Study.
8	to	8.30	Dinner.
8.30	to	9.30	Recreation in the parlor, social intercourse, dancing, music.
9.30	to	5.30	Sleep.

The students will be under the supervision of a prefect of boarding students, who will have under his orders the watchers, the wardrobe keeper, the physician, and the nurse.

The duties of the prefect may be performed by the director when necessary.

The grades of the students will be read weekly and the name of those students who have behaved the best during the week will be posted.

The families of the students will be furnished monthly reports of their progress, application, conduct, condition of health, etc.

Every three months an examination will be held on the subjects studied.

APPENDIX C

PETITION OF THE WOMEN OF MALOLOS, BULACAN, 1888 ¹

Excmo. Sr. Gobernador General de Filipinas.

Excmo Sr.

Nosotras las jóvenes que suscriben y algunas más ante V. E. con el debido respeto nos presentamos y exponemos: que deseosas de saber el rico idioma español, estimuladas y agradecidas por vuestro generoso espíritu de generalizar en el país la lengua de castilla; y no pudiendo aprenderla en los colegios de Manila, algunas por su escasa fortuna, otras por las apremiantes circunstancias en que se encuentran en sus casas, ni hacerla de día por estar ocupadas en quehaceres domésticos más perentorios: Con tal propósito a V. E. humildemente suplicamos se nos conceda una escuela nocturna en casa de una vieja parienta nuestra donde acudiremos en compañía de nuestras madres a recibir lecciones de gramática castellana bajo la enseñanza del profesor de latinidad retribuido por cuenta nuestra, quien en poco tiempo ha dado pruebas de aptitud para la ensenanza del castellano por el adelanto que manifiestan sus discípulos, al paso que los maestros del pueblo, sin tratar por esto de ofender-

¹Reprinted from *La Solidaridad*, Madrid, 1889-91, pp. 4-6. This petition of the women of Malolos, Bulacan, reflected the desire current among the women of the Philippines to learn the Castilian language. The petition was granted.

les en su profesión no han conseguido hasta la presente positivos resultados.

En gracia que no dudamos merece de la reconocida bondad de V. E. cuya importante vida, guarde Dios muchos años.

Malolos, 12 de Diciembre de 1888. Alberta Ui-Tangcoy, Teresa Tantoco, María Tantoco, Merced Tiongson, Agapita Tiongson, Basilia Tiongson, Basilia Tantoco, Paz Tiongson, Feliciano Tiongson—otras.

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